
SOCIAL EDUCATION

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Better Citizens—Better Soldiers

Brigadier General C. T. Lanham

IN TIME of peace a free society regards its Army with distaste and often with suspicion. This is natural, for an Army by its very structure is the antithesis of everything held dear by a democratic community. It is authoritarian; nor can it compromise with that principle if it is to survive on the field of battle. Its leaders are necessarily vested with great power and are therefore constantly subject to the corroding and corrupting influences that attend personal power. Its men, in their own interest and in the national interest, must acquire the habit of obedience or suffer for it, a process unfavorably known as regimentation. And finally, a free people do not relish in their midsts the incredibly destructive power that is unavoidably concentrated in the military establishment—a power so vast, so awful that the human mind staggers with disbelief in its presence. These then are the facts—facts that the most skillful apologist can not evade. And facts they shall remain so long as an infantile world society clings to its tribal totems and invokes organized force as its ultimate arbiter.

THE PROBLEM

THESE very real fears have repeatedly led us in previous times of peace to reduce our Army to a state of impotence, wall it up in isolated and forgotten garrisons handed down from frontier days, and then wipe it from our minds and, I am afraid, from our consciences. An Army can not thrive on Burke's prescription for the colonies—salutary neglect. An Army abandoned by the clergy, ignored by education, pilloried by the press, and forsaken by the civil community will inevitably degenerate professionally and rot morally. This has happened before. We

must not let it happen again, for in addition to the social evils implicit in such miasmatic conditions, our military weakness invites external forces to destroy the very values we had sought by this deliberate policy to safeguard.

Surely then, since Utopia has not yet arrived, we must support and sustain an Army adequate to the evils of the day. And since such an Army will of necessity embrace great numbers of our young men, we must see that this substantial period of their lives is not spent in a civic vacuum, in an educational wasteland, in a moral slum. It is clear, therefore, that our obligation transcends the traditional military concept that our sole duty is to provide the Republic with a body of trained fighting men. With your help we must provide those fighting men with a healthy mental, moral, and social climate with full opportunity for intellectual and civic growth. We must return these young men to their communities not merely as master journeymen in the deadly trade of war but as self-respecting, mature citizens, strengthened by self-discipline and fortified in the democratic faith by living and working with men of all creeds, of all origins, of all economic and educational levels.

Thus, our broad objective is to produce a better soldier and a better citizen, for the better the man as a citizen the better he is as a soldier. Similarly, one of the objectives you pursue most passionately is the development of a better citizen. Here, then, lies our community of interest; here too lies our fundamental security whether the threat be internal or external, by ideology or by force. For neither an Army nor a nation can long survive when the philosophy upon which it stands has decayed or its values been lost through public apathy. Our first line of defense, then, rests with you, the educators of America, and I think in particular with those dedicated to the social sciences.

Some are not inclined to agree with this view and yet to my mind the entire history of warfare bears witness to its validity. Repeatedly the great captains of history warn that the critical factor

The author of this thought-provoking address, delivered at the first general session of the Chicago convention of the National Council for the Social Studies, is Special Assistant to the Chief of Staff of the United States Army.

in war lies in the moral field. From Bonaparte to Bradley the chain of testimony is unbroken—there is no substitute for the will to win. Nor are there substitutes for those civic factors which produce the will to win. Doubters may read current object lessons in this profound truth in Greece and in China. Therefore, I contend that the foundations of our national power reside ultimately in the virtues of our government and in those educative processes that bring to our people an understanding of that shining philosophy upon which our country stands.

For this reason, and others I have cited earlier, we of the military persuasion find ourselves engaged in activities that would startle the professional soldier of an earlier day. In 1942, with our backs to the wall and with every material consideration counseling against it, we undertook a gigantic program of civic education—a program that was eventually to gather strength and grow until it encompassed the whole royal realm of education. This program brought with it a philosophy of human relations that is gradually eroding outworn concepts too long dignified as traditions. Why, in these dark days, did the Army launch this program? Because we had learned late in 1941 that great numbers of our young citizen-soldiers were literally ignorant of the rising tides of darkness beyond our barrier oceans; and since they saw no danger, they saw no obligation to serve. In common with all too many of their fellow citizens, these young men had little knowledge of the human values at issue in the world arena, values that they would soon be called upon to preserve at the ultimate price of their lives. Was it not the poet Vachel Lindsay who cried "Not that they die, Oh Lord, but that they die like sheep"? Thus, we found the shocking fault in our armor and moved to repair it as best we could. It is heartening to see a national awakening to this grave danger, to see the country closing ranks behind you and your work, to see the social sciences moving to a position of preeminence in the broad domain of education. Meanwhile, with your guidance and help we shall continue our effort to strengthen the civic consciousness of our young soldiers and to stimulate and advance their mental and moral growth.

In pursuit of these good ends the Army has initiated many far-reaching programs—a career guidance program, a character guidance program, a strengthened and invigorated religious program that is crowding our chapels, and a broad information and education program. Time does

not permit me to present all of these; therefore, I have elected to limit this discussion to our work in the field of information and education.

OBJECTIVES OF CIVIC EDUCATION IN THE ARMY

WE SEEK four major objectives in our information-education work, all directed towards the central target of better soldiery and better citizenship. First, and perhaps most important, we strive to foster the dignity and the integrity of the individual soldier, in contrast to the traditional military anonymity that crushes the spirit, that leads a soldier to refer to himself as a dog-face, a G.I. Man can suffer no greater indignity than the loss of his identity. Man can sustain no heavier spiritual blow than the thought that his life or death is of no consequence. Too often has the conviction that the individual is of no importance led the soldier to the collateral belief that his individual effort is of no importance either. If this thought is generated in enough men in an Army, the end result in battle is obvious. Therefore, we strive to build an officer corps that will recognize, honor, and preserve the dignity of the humblest soldier. At the same time, we use every device available to us to convince the soldier himself that his well-being, his aspirations, his service are all matters of prime importance to his Army and to his country. We seek to fulfill the desire in every human heart to count for something, to be needed.

Our second objective is to provide an answer to the soldier's eternal and inevitable question "Why?" We base this on the fact that the American soldier can be led but not driven; and to lead him, he must have an adequate and an intelligent explanation of the things he is called upon to do. You will recognize, of course, that this does considerable damage to that ancient school of thought which contended "theirs not to question why." Enlightened leaders have always done their best to answer this ever present question whether it was spoken or unspoken. Now, as it should be in the Army of any free people, it is a fundamental requirement of command whenever time and security permit.

Strangely enough, this policy has been questioned not only by some of our military men but by some of our civilian critics too. This, in common with the rest of the philosophy I have been describing to you, has been indicated as "mollycoddling." It has been categorically charged by some that such procedures will destroy discipline, without which an Army can not exist. It appears to us that the critics of these policies are mistak-

ing the shadow for the substance. Quite apparently they are bemused by that brittle counterfeit of discipline which is based on fear. We seek the tougher, more enduring discipline that is rooted in understanding. Nothing short of this has ever succeeded with the American soldier and nothing ever will.

Our third aim is to bring to our young men an understanding and an appreciation of the American ideal; to nourish that ideal; and to build an abiding belief in the future of our country and the democratic process. Here lies the very bedrock of motivation. Are we impious enough to believe that American citizens fight and die for seventy-five dollars a month? Do we delude ourselves that free men drive themselves into the inferno of battle for a beloved leader? Do we beguile ourselves with the thought that men offer their bodies to the scourges of war for a crusade against something? I think not. We fight, if fight we must, for the preservation of the human values and human decencies we try to live by. As a people we would be fatuous indeed to place our trust and our future in an Army that does not know and does not understand the human freedoms they are sworn to defend. If we of the military or you of the civil community fail in this fundamental area, our national and indeed Western civilization itself will surely perish.

There is a collateral matter here that I must touch on. The occupation soldier has been bitterly criticized by many observers as an inadequate representative of the American point of view. His youth, his immaturity, his lack of experience have all weighed heavily against him. On the other hand, the identical criticism was leveled at his older brother during the war and immediately following the war. There can be no question that the wartime soldier and the occupation soldier were in large measure politically illiterate. It is equally true, I think, that our young men are no match dialectically with the sophisticates of Europe. Unhappily, when driven into an intellectual corner, they turn too often for defense to our physical abundance, to our radios, our automobiles, our washing machines, our electric refrigerators, and ultimately and triumphantly to the American bathroom. It is unfortunate that we are not more skillful advocates of the philosophy we live by, not because we are in danger of being converted to other ways of life, for our studies show that the impact of European peoples upon the American soldier has merely intensified his devotion to his own country, but because the peoples of Europe are bewildered by men who

appear indifferent to the political and philosophical bases of the most powerful nation in the world. This should be a matter of alarm to all of us. Even more alarming is our furious concentration on sheer materialism with never a thought for our spiritual and moral roots. The Army does what it can to correct this spiritual insolvency, but the basic problem is not ours.

Our fourth objective is to keep the men of our Army aware of the great national and international issues that confront us from day to day in order that each man may understand the vital interest those matters hold for him as a soldier and as a citizen. The military man, as well as the civilian, is entitled to a free flow of information. We believe, however, that these matters are of such vital import to the soldier that we can not leave the question of his current knowledge entirely to chance or inclination. Therefore, in addition to providing him with broad access to the American press and radio, we make positive provision to bring him objective presentations of the more important matters transpiring in his country and in his world and then encourage organized discussion of those matters on duty time. There is no attempt to influence his thinking. On the contrary, every effort is made to encourage him to think for himself and to discuss his views with his fellow soldiers. The virtues of this process both from the military and civic points of view are too obvious to warrant elaboration.

These four goals I have listed are among the more important on the human side of the New Army we are trying to develop. There are many derivative objectives but I believe these four are sufficient to make the point that the philosophy of the Army of 1948 is far removed from that of the Army of say 1939.

PROGRAMS OF CIVIC EDUCATION

THERE are many programs, as I indicated earlier, that bear directly on the attainment of these ends, but in large measure the key philosophy as well as its major mechanisms are found in the Troop Information and Education Division of the Department of the Army. This Division has three principal operating branches—an Attitude Research Branch, a Troop Information Branch, and an Education Branch. I would like to outline briefly the major activities conducted by each of these.

We can dispose quickly of the Troop Attitude Research Branch by stating simply that it is the Gallup Poll of the Army—an unfortunate paraphrase since November 2. In essence, this is our

morale radar. With this device we can measure, within useful margins of error, the magnitude of the human as well as the material problems that confront us. We can and do determine the Army's attitudes and opinions on everything from the United Nations to racial and religious prejudice, from the efficacy of the combat boot to the adequacy of training. This service has been of immense value to the Department of the Army as well as to the individual soldier. It would be a pity if the derision currently directed at the national polling organizations resulted in the elimination of the Army's small but effective research agency.

The Troop Information Branch, which I insist should be renamed the Civic Education Branch, operates a weekly Troop Information Program popularly known by its initials as "TIP"; the great Armed Forces Radio Service; an Armed Forces Press Service; and Armed Forces Screen Report; and distributes posters, maps, and miscellaneous printed and graphic materials designed to assist commanders in keeping their troops informed.

From the point of view of both military and civic significance, our most vital troop information activity is the weekly troop information program. Material for this mandatory hour of group discussion is supplied in a weekly pamphlet of about 12 pages called *Armed Forces Talks*. This is the focal point of our information program. All other information activities supplement and strengthen it. Through this device we keep before our troops on a world-wide basis such crucial topics as the United Nations, the Marshall Plan, the Truman Doctrine, prejudice, communism in the United States, inflation, organized labor, simple geopolitical discussions, studies of our government from local to national level, atomic energy, the soldier's duty to vote, and comparable matters of national concern. The program is not all we wish it to be. Progress, though slow and difficult, has nevertheless been steady. In time, and with patience, it shall win the intellectual and emotional acceptance it must have in order to attain its full effectiveness.

The Armed Forces Radio Service serves our men overseas by means of some fifty standard-wave stations located in the occupied countries. From headquarters in Los Angeles, about sixty hours of transcriptions go out to these stations each week. Most of the programs are, of course, entertainment, but these are supplemented by a heavy proportion of our best domestic public service programs and our own productions that

deal in large part with the field of civic enlightenment. Thus we run continuing series that deal with the evolution and meaning of our freedoms, with the occupation soldier as a representative of his country, with the theme of the melting pot that has never boiled over, with the contribution of the foreign born to our culture and our science, with progress reports on the United Nations, and always of course around-the-clock presentation of news from the wire services. The values of this service to our isolated garrisons in Korea, Alaska, the forgotten islands of the Pacific, Trieste, Austria, and Germany are patent. From the vast volume of mail we receive, it would appear that the secondary audience of foreign nationals, though an incidental target, is of equal importance.

Through our Armed Forces Press Service in New York we still serve some 700 soldier papers. These vary from the great theater-type papers such as *Stars and Stripes* with mass circulation to the small unit papers designed to promote a sense of unity and pride in organization.

Once a month we produce a short motion picture under the general title, "Armed Forces Screen Report." Some of our better known pictures are: *It's Your America*, *Don't Be a Sucker*, *Seeds of Destiny* (an Academy Award winner), *The Negro Soldier*, *A Tale of Two Cities* (Hiroshima and Nagasaki), and comparable subjects. Work is currently going forward on three pictures dealing with the problems of peace in Europe, in Asia, and at home. In addition to our own productions, we buy prints of selected subjects from such educational series as *The March of Time* and *This Is America*. Here as in our other information activities the purpose is to keep the soldier alert, interested, and informed and to supply in part, at least, a remedy for those ancient occupational diseases of the military—apathy, boredom, and mental corrosion.

Space does not permit further elaboration of our information activities, although it is difficult to grasp the magnitude of that civic undertaking from this thumbnail sketch.

The third activity of Troop Information and Education deals with education. First, may I emphasize that educational policies for this program are determined by a committee consisting of eleven distinguished civilian educators and two representatives from each of the educational divisions of the three services. I should also like to emphasize that the Armed Forces do not award academic credits, diplomas, or degrees. These are the prerogatives of civilian education.

CONTINUING PROGRESS

THE Army's education program centers in the United States Armed Forces Institute, popularly known as USAFI, which is located in Madison, Wisconsin. The Institute provides our troops with correspondence courses and lesson service, with tests and study guides for individual or group study, with educational guidance, and with tests and examinations which constitute the basis of civilian academic credit. It also provides the serviceman's high school, college, or employer with detailed records of his accomplishments. The decision to award or not to award credit is, of course, the school's. It is significant, we think, that this program is currently recognized in 48 states, the District of Columbia, and our territories.

We have been particularly elated to find that organized class instruction, started experimentally some two and a half years ago, is skyrocketing. More than 50,000 men are now regularly attending these classes. This is still more remarkable when one considers that these classes are conducted on off-duty hours by part-time instructors from neighboring educational institutions. Overseas our educational centers are staffed by instructors from the United States employed on a full-time basis. As might be expected, our educational programs run the full range of education from literacy training through college study.

In launching this program, and indeed in maintaining it after the war, we were confronted as usual by the disciples of the *status quo*. Quote these doleful folk: "There is no time for non-military education in an Army. . . . Men come into the Army to escape education. . . . Education is none of the Army's business." The answers to these objections are now matters of historical record. Today more than 250,000 men are voluntarily pursuing some form of non-military education on their own time. More than five thousand men a month are qualifying for their high school diplomas or certificates of equivalency through participation in these educational programs, and with the splendid cooperation of civilian education. Thousands upon thousands of men who had indeed enlisted in the Army to escape from high school have been encouraged to

resume their studies and have gone on to win their high school diplomas and to begin college-level work. These are matters of great moment to the Army and of great significance to our country. It would be unfortunate, indeed, if this program were ever abandoned, for in point of fact, dollar for dollar our educational program provides our country with one of the most profitable investments it can make in its Armed Forces. It provides us with an alert soldiery; it pays rich dividends in terms of prestige for the man in uniform; it is one of the primary inducements in attracting high quality volunteers; and, finally, it represents a permanent social gain to the Republic.

These, then, are some of the innovations you will find in your Army of today. You will not find perfection. You will not find that every officer is an Eisenhower or a Bradley or even a competent practitioner in the difficult art of leading his fellow soldier. But you will find that the doors and windows of the Army are open and that a clean, invigorating wind is blowing away the accumulated cobwebs of a narrow and fruitless traditionalism. A good start has been made. It cannot be continued without the interest, the understanding, and the support of the American people. It cannot succeed if your sons come to us imbued with a hatred of their Army and a contempt for the corps of officers. It cannot succeed if these young people have not learned that there are some values in this world worth fighting for and, if need be, worth dying for since the alternatives are too dreadful for the free man to contemplate. Affirmatively, they must understand the world in which they live and their part in that world; they must learn that every privilege, every right, every freedom carries a corresponding obligation; and, finally, they must bring with them the knowledge that tyranny in Bulgaria, starvation in Greece, treason in Malaya, or civil war in China, are of intimate and deadly concern to every man in every corner of the earth. Somehow they must learn the lethal significance of that lethal line, "Ask not for whom the bell tolls. It tolls for thee." Given that clarity of perception and that moral strength, neither we nor the world need go in fear of the future.

Morale is the quality of the spirit of the whole. It is the product of many elements, among them hope, determination, health, consciousness of strength, confidence—in the cause, the officers, the other men, the wisdom of the war program, the strategy, and the tactics—and belief in God. . . . It is confidence, not merely individual but collective. Morale is no more the sum of the feelings of the individuals than public opinion is the sum of individual opinions. It is the spirit of the whole. (Luther H. Gulick, *Morals and Morale*. New York: Association Press, 1919. P. xi.)

An Educator Visits Turkey

Emil Lengyel

THE world has heard much about the late Mustapha Kemal Ataturk, founder of the Turkish Republic, but it has not yet learned to appreciate the full significance of his mission. It may be that no attempt has been made to understand the causes of his spectacular innovations. We know that he removed the Turk's turbans, replacing them with hats. Not so widely recognized is the fact that this was merely a symbolic act; Ataturk was far more interested in what was in the mind of the modern Turk than in what he wore on his head.

The world is also familiar with Turkey's exchange of her Arabic script for a Latin script. Anyone who failed to conform with this government requirement lost his livelihood. We can understand the boldness of this innovation if we try to imagine ourselves being compelled to exchange our long-hand writing for a far more efficient compulsory short-hand.

THESE and many other measures provided merely the framework of the new Turkish life. The contents were provided by education.

Under the Ottoman Empire education was almost exclusively religious. The attitude of the government of the Sultan was prescribed by the position of that mighty potentate. He was the secular ruler of the Ottoman Empire, and, in addition, the religious head, Caliph of all Islam. That not all Islam took his claim to that title too seriously is another matter.

Imperial Turkey was, therefore, something of a theocracy, and its publicly-sponsored education was also theocratic. "If it is in the Koran, what's the use of repeating it elsewhere? If it is not in the Koran, it need not be known." Education centered around that Sacred Writ; scholarship centered in religious schools attached to the mosques. Scientific titles, such as *mufti* and *ulem-*

ma, were conferred upon scholars familiar with Koranic law.

An idea of the status of Turkish education under the Empire can be gained by recalling that when the Turkish Republic was proclaimed in 1923 primary school pupils numbered only about 350,000 children. Even five years later, 80 percent of all over eighteen years of age were illiterate.

Mustapha Kemal was fully aware of the importance of education in the task of turning Turkey into a modern country. Under his rule, the number of schools increased year after year, with a corresponding increase in the number of students. He instilled his own belief in the revolutionary potentialities of progressive education into his collaborators. He died in 1938, and the government has been carried on since then under the Presidency of his close friend and co-administrator, Ismet Inönü. It was ten years ago that Turkey embarked upon that revolutionary experiment which has turned out to be most useful and which may be looked upon as a landmark in Middle Eastern education.

EDUCATIONAL REFORM

LARGE-SCALE educational reform requires far more than a written program. It must have buildings, equipment, and teachers. Buildings could be secured quite easily, for the government could always requisition a couple of rooms in the house of the rich man of the village. But teacher-training was a real problem. If the government was to stamp out illiteracy and remold the Turkish world into the image of the West, it had to have more teachers in a hurry. That is how the Village Institute (*Köy Enstitüsü*) came into existence.

The basic idea of the Village Institute is to comb the elementary schools of the country for prospective teachers. After five years of a Spartan life of concentrated work in the institutes, they are assigned teaching positions under the watchful eyes of higher authorities.

Today there are twenty-one such institutes established all over the country. The most important of these is near a village called Hasanoğlu, some 34 kilometers northeast of the new Turkish capital, Ankara.

"Most of what follows," the author writes, "is based on my observations in Turkey last year." Dr. Lengyel, the author of *Turkey* and other books about the Balkans and the Middle East, is an associate professor of education at New York University.

HASANOĞLAN Village Institute is located in a typical Anatolian countryside, which scholarly Turks describe as "Texas-type country." (Texans would probably protest the comparison.) The Anatolian countryside is semi-arid, of varying shades of grey, and not too stimulating. The village itself is situated about a mile from the institute, and nothing is more revealing of the revolutionary changes in Turkish education than a comparison of the village and the institute.

Hasanoğlan is one of 40,000 Turkish villages scattered over a sprawling country of nearly 20,000,000 people. A quarter of a century ago it had probably one literate person—the reader of the Koranic law. On my recent visit the village chief (*mukhtar*) told me that the entire adult population was literate. His statement may have been a slight exaggeration, or the high degree of literacy may result from the nearby village institute.

The institute itself is a group of stone houses, including classrooms, a model school, an open-air stage, workshops, dormitories, and a community kitchen. In America the place would be considered unpretentious, but Hasanoğlan is not America.

The total enrollment of the Institute at the time of my visit was 1,050, and of these about one-half were preparing to be village teachers. The ages of the students preparing for this type of teaching ranged from eleven to sixteen. The other students, somewhat older, were preparing to teach in secondary schools and to serve as health officers in sanitation institutes supported by the government. About 15 percent of the students were girls. In the United States the proportion of the sexes would be different, but we must never forget that we are dealing with Turkey. Less than a generation ago women were shut up in "harems," and would have been stoned if they had dared to show their unveiled faces in public. Today there is apparently no feeling of superiority on the part of the boys.

At the time of my visit a group of students were rehearsing a play on the open-air stage. They were so engrossed in their work that I was not noticed, even though strangers do not drop in every day.

The books teachers read are always a good indication of their interest. I was interested, therefore, in the books on the personal shelves of the student teachers. The books were predominantly English, mostly pedagogical books published in the United States. This in itself is interesting, for Turkey was, under the old regime, a French cul-

tural satellite. I noticed such specialized studies as a book on *Rural Community Organization*.

The gymnasium of the school was equally revealing. Sports were little known in this part of the world under the empire. Now, under the republic, ball games have become extremely popular. Store-room doors everywhere bore labels such as *fudball* and *hendball*.

After five years at Hasanoğlan, or one of the other village institutes, the young people are assigned to village schools. There they remain under the surveillance of government inspectors until they prove their mettle. After that they become full-fledged teachers. If they fail to show their worth, they are sent home.

The twenty-one village institutes have a student body of 15,000, and a graduate body of nearly 10,000. They are expected to graduate some 2,000 teachers during the current school year.

Turkey today has about 2,500,000 children of elementary school age, and of these about 1,500,000 attended school during 1947-1948. The number of elementary school buildings is close to 16,000, and as the Minister of Education, Resat Semsettin Sirer, pointed out to me in Ankara, the government plans to open 2,000 elementary schools every year.

Turkey has a long way to go, and the Turks know it. They say they are doing their best, but the cost of a wartime economy is high. When they are able to return to a peacetime economy, they will be able to spend more on education.

No other country has gone as far in modernizing its old institutions and ways of life as the former Ottoman Empire. But few countries had such a long road to travel. The visitor is reminded of the fact that national habits take a long time to change, even though the government itself assumes the responsibility for the reforms. On the one hand, there is the drive to change the old, which is recognized as inferior. On the other hand, there is the resistance of long-established habits. The visitor sometimes feels that in Turkey he is witnessing an example of the irresistible force meeting the immovable object.

THE founders of modern Turkey had a dream, and they are impatient to turn it into a reality. They built the village school at Hasanoğlan with the help of the village itself. It requires but twenty minutes to go from the school to the village; yet in that twenty minutes one moves as slowly as in the days of Suleyman the Magnificent.

This is true also of education in Turkey. The

avowed object of the reforms was to develop an educational program that would motivate a more progressive way of life. It would be unfair to the makers of modern Turkey to say that they have gotten nowhere with their ideas. Grandfather Mustapha would certainly disown grandchild Fatima in the modern Turkish school room. But Fatima and Mahmet and the other hundreds of thousands of Turkish children are far removed from the status of little John and Joan in an American school. The new teacher, just arrived in the village from his training at Hasanoğlu, is bursting with the desire to introduce ultra-modern methods. Somehow these methods do not seem the same in Turkey as in the United States. The teachers are not to blame, and the children are not to blame. Time, and the spirit of the place, is at fault. It will be a long time before John Dewey, the patron saint of Turkish educators, will have a chance to practice what he preaches in Turkey.

KALABA

BUT Turkish teachers are doing their best. Nowhere was this as evident as it was in a school where I least expected it. In the village of Kalaba, another group of mud-huts in Anatolia, I visited a school for delinquent boys, eleven to fifteen years of age. The boys were in the school movie when I arrived—a sign of progressive education. The tool-rooms and work-shops were highly adequate for a Middle Eastern country—another point scored by progress. The director, M. Abdulkadir, was a triumph of progressive education, with his youthful spirit and smiling eyes.

The movie over, he lined up the boys in the school yard, colorful with flowers planted by the students. One hundred and thirty-eight boys stood before us. I asked M. Abdulkadir to point out the youngest. He called the name of Ahmed, and a squat little fellow of eleven broke ranks, a big, happy smile on his face. Just by looking at the boy you realized the great advantages of progressive education as practiced at the school. A bigger boy stepped forward with Ahmed. When questioned, the director explained that this was Mustapha, fifteen years of age, and that his function was that of "baby-sitter" to Ahmed. This, indeed, was the supreme triumph of progressive education in an industrial school for delinquent boys in the heart of Turkey.

I asked the director about discipline problems. He assured me that there were none. No signs of coercion or duress were in evidence. Everything was wide open, with no bars or gates.

At my request, M. Abdulkadir related the histories of some of the boys. Most of them were in for murder; some for rape. Only about half a dozen were in for theft. There was cause for rejoicing in this, the director said with radiant eyes. The children were murderers, including Ahmed and Mustapha, not because they were basically bad but because they were oversensitive about honor, their own and that of their families. A Turkish boy with a strong sense of honor and *amour propre* will fight for his honor in his country as well as outside of it. Crimes against property, such as theft, would, however, be an entirely different matter. That would be a sign of moral decadence. The director was not discouraged. "His boys," he predicted, "would be turned into useful citizens through their environment and education."

To a visitor from the Western world, the director's evaluation of the boy's crimes is incomprehensible. I thought, as he talked, of the great variations among cultures, and it seemed obvious to me that in the task of developing world understanding we must be far more realistic than we have been in the past. It is not going to be easy for us to understand other peoples, and for them to understand us.

CONCLUDING THOUGHTS

AERICAN educators can profit from a study of the modern Turk's achievements. The Turk's have pulled themselves out of illiteracy by their own bootstraps. The lesson in self-help can be useful to educators called upon to assist foreign countries in establishing new educational programs, especially countries with small budgets.

The Turkish educational experiment is particularly significant for another reason. Modern Turkey has set out to build an ultra-modern house in which to live, one which will replace the Stone Age hut that characterized the decadent Oriental despotism of the Ottoman Empire. Many of the leaders of the new Turkey hope to create a virile democracy along Occidental lines. They recognize the key position that education must occupy in this new structure. Educators in the United States, particularly educators whose primary concern is with the social studies, have much to contribute to the Turks and to other national groups struggling with this problem of fundamental concern to the entire world. My trip last summer reconfirmed my conviction that we *must* help, but it also convinced me that we, in turn, have much to gain from the experiences of others.

Ninth Grade Social Studies

Harold L. Bitting

THE ninth grade course in social studies is today the subject of major attention by curriculum builders. Recognizing the inadequacies of the traditional textbook courses in occupations, community civics, and geography, teachers have been seeking a more functional content with more direct appeal to the student.

In 1941, the social studies faculty at Lyons Township High School began a revision of the ninth grade social studies course. Through seven years of cooperative planning, the course has developed into one making a vital contribution to the training of our freshman boys and girls.

Several premises were fundamental in constructing the course:

1. Duplication of the content of the social studies courses of the elementary school must be held to a minimum. There must be cooperative development of the curriculum through the twelve year program.
2. The objectives of the course must be cooperatively established through joint planning of students and teacher.
3. Within the broad outline of content, students and teacher must cooperatively agree upon problems which seem worth exploring.
4. The course must be sufficiently flexible so that materials developed by the guidance experts may be curricularized as soon as the information appears to be of worth-while value.
5. A unifying theme must continue throughout the course so that each unit appears to be an integral part of the total picture.
6. Each classroom must take on the function of a laboratory with a rich store of supplementary books, pamphlets, current events magazines, maps, and films.
7. Evaluation of student progress must be made in terms of the objectives of the course.

With these seven premises in mind, we held weekly faculty meetings over a period of several years. At these meetings we discussed objectives, content, methods of securing student participation in planning, materials, timing of the units to be covered, and testing devices.

The author of this account of a cooperative enterprise in building a social studies curriculum for the ninth grade is chairman of the social studies department in the Lyons Township High School and Junior College, La Grange, Illinois.

PROBLEMS

OUR first serious problem was that of avoiding serious duplication of grade school content. This was difficult since our students were graduates of ten different grade schools under six different administrative heads. Some of the grade schools taught two years of American history in the upper two years, others taught one and one-half years of history and one semester of a well organized civics course. Cooperative meetings between grade and high school teachers helped to reveal the areas of duplication. Agreements were made on units to be covered so that social education might progressively develop year by year.

Secondly, while still teaching a content that we knew must be changed, general objectives were agreed upon by the faculty. Students were then consulted for their ideas of what behavior patterns, attitudes, and skills should be set up as objectives of the course. Often, to the amazement of faculty members, student groups would emerge from two or three hours of heated discussion with a list of objectives almost identical to those tentatively decided upon by the faculty.

The results have been gratifying. It is not uncommon for students to voluntarily refer to the established objectives as the course progresses. When students understand and are in agreement with course objectives, self evaluation becomes relatively simple, motivation is noticeably improved, and democracy begins to operate.

A third problem was that of reaching agreement upon the content of the course and the units to be studied. The faculty decided to center the work of the course in the following topics:

1. Student opportunities in Lyons Township High School
2. Our Civic Life Together
3. Living Together in One World
4. Earning a Living Together
5. Sharing the Highway

The content of each unit, the problems for investigation, and the order in which the material is taken up are subjects upon which student opinion has a great deal of influence. The fact remains that there is an established body of information that must be covered by each class.

The problem under discussion, however, may not be the same in any two classes. But, the material brought to bear upon the solution of the problems may be relatively the same in all sections. For example, in a consideration of the problem of reaching international agreements, students might be investigating the Palestine problem, the United States-Russian conflict, or the Dutch control of Sumatra, and still find need for learning the machinery of international diplomacy and treaty making, the necessity of international trade, and the necessity for sound currency in all nations. The fact that students may select their problems within each unit gives an element of democratic practice and an improved motivation.

Such a method of teaching requires a very resourceful instructor who is ready and capable of directing student interest and activity into channels which will make it necessary that the pupils secure required information and apply it to the solution of an actual problem. Teaching such a content organization makes it possible to open a unit with the use of a film, through the discussion and analysis of a current news item, or through a class discussion. The instructor becomes an opportunist who capitalizes upon student interest, leads it and directs it into channels where motivation is high and where materials become functional and purposeful.

Obviously, the chronological coverage of any single text or group of texts is not planned. On a given day, no two teachers are likely to be carrying on exactly the same activity. Nor is it likely that a teacher will be carrying on identical activities in any two sections of his classes. Yet the framework of content is constantly in the mind of the teacher and students, for a skeleton outline is in the hands of all class members.

The fourth premise refers to flexibility with reference to the units, as well as to the basic content within the unit. It was only last year that the unit, "Sharing the Highway," was taken over from the guidance program and made an integral part of the freshman course. It proved to be the most popular unit of the year. Within the units, content also changes. This has been particularly true of the unit, "Living Together in One World."

The fifth premise has been particularly important. It has been the most difficult of accomplishment. We have made our greatest strides during the current year by developing a pattern which

has become the underlying structure for each unit. Students are made aware that the course is a study of the fundamentals of group living. In the study of each group, six areas of investigation are summarized:

1. What is the fundamental "machinery" existing to make group life function smoothly?
2. What are the democratic controls that direct the actions of the group?
3. What are some of the areas of conflict in group living?
4. What democratic principles underlie the solution of these conflicts?
5. What are the responsibilities of the individual toward the group?
6. What benefits does the individual receive from the existence of the group?

It is in the discussion of these questions relating to each group that the real principles of democratic living are discovered. As the study of one group is extended into the study of the next, the patterns of democratic machinery, controls, and responsibilities become ever clearer as the similarities are noted. The attitudes and necessary behavior patterns for successful group life become increasingly obvious.

By this time the sixth premise needs little elaboration. To attempt the experiment already outlined has made necessary the expenditure of several thousand dollars. The use of twenty four films in itself involves no small expense. Several hundred volumes, plus extensive pamphlet collections, are also a part of each laboratory.

FINALLY, a course must be evaluated in terms of how well students have demonstrated growth and achievement. Testing factual information is relatively easy. A cooperative unit test has been devised for most of the units. A student self-appraisal technique is being experimentally used. Individual conferences are widely used. Written reports are being sent to the home analyzing performance both above and below those expected of the student. Within our limited time we are attempting to do some testing for attitudes and skills. We still think this area requires much more attention.

The course is still on an experimental basis. It will probably continue to remain so. To crystallize it, to put it into a textbook, would destroy the very thing we have sought to develop. It is a growing project of a teacher-student planned course in democratic living.

The Educational Film

Louise I. Capen

THE American high school is not an educational antique shop cluttered with musty pedagogical relics, outmoded curios in-print, faded remembrances, and freak learnings. To the contrary, it vibrates with more modern zest than is familiar inside many a community circle.

The high school has pioneered courageously to outposts of achievement far removed from the shackles of certain backward practices in thought and action indulged up and down and around our Main Streets. The high school curriculum has been enriched immeasurably with powerful opportunities to accentuate the value of learning by seeing, by listening, by doing, by being, and by thinking—five fundamental resources of learning that are not isolated experiences. They are interwoven as a composite adventure. No one of them functions singly. Each contributes its share to a realization of the value of being intelligently alert.

First among recent curricula arrivals is the educational film, a relatively new learning tool that has embedded itself in the school scene with every intention of becoming a permanent fixture. The film has lately enrolled its younger brother, the radio, in our curriculum. It is but a matter of time before a new-born babe, television, will leave its present cradle confines for the freedom of the classroom. All these innovations augur well. The more plentiful the learning resources, the better the schooling for competent citizenship in the American way of life.

The film has already given ample evidence of its educative effectiveness. Formerly, teachers had to journey afield in continuous quest of reality with which to stir the immobility of the printed page. The halftone portrayal of a mummy, entombed in a text, supplemented by an actual mu-

seum exhibit, makes convincing documentation. But this well-known technique of augmenting the abstract with the tangible has lost some of its savour under the pressure of a greatly accelerated living tempo. Teachers have felt less and less inclined to journey very far from the classroom because of increasing risks involved in these undertakings. Now, as if by the magic wave of a wand, much of life can be captured and mirrored in a way never before possible. Small wonder teachers welcome an instrument that surmounts distance and time. By means of it, groups can move out of the present into the past by merely shifting from classroom to darkroom. Teachers are not, however, nearly as concerned with the novelty of this offering as with its educative usefulness.

PREPARATIONS FOR THE USE OF FILMS

EVERY high school curriculum needs the inspiration of a visual aids studio in order to expand its breadth of comprehension and its width of time-reach. The simplest way is to have a unit set apart by itself, or improvised by converting a regular classroom by means of dark shades, an electric outlet, a display screen, and a projector. The latter can be operated by teachers or by a staff of pupil technicians known as the *visual aids crew*. These pupils can be trained and guided by a member of the faculty, plausibly a teacher of science whose acquaintance with things mechanical tends toward ease of "know how" and safeguarding of the equipment. This project as an all-school service deserves high priority approval from the faculty.

What happens when a class group moves to a film showing? The worst thing that can happen is for a class, or a teacher, or both to regard the experience as a by-product of education, or "time off" from the due process of learning. Such an attitude is ruinous to the pedagogical, psychological value of the film at school. The major task of the teacher is to condition classes against such illusions. This is a step to be taken cautiously and subtly. A favorable audience climate for the school film can be planned in advance of its scheduled booking. This means that the class will not attend the film showing unprepared for the

Miss Capen, head of the Social Studies Department in Barringer High School in Newark, New Jersey, author of widely-used textbooks and an experienced classroom teacher, here discusses a method for the use of educational films that she has used in her own classes.

message of the screen. It is the teacher who must guide, and to do this he must have an acquaintance with the picture and a profile of the class.

Although some teachers have frequently gone directly to the task of showing a film without giving attention to ways and means of interrelating learning-by-watching with learning-by-studying, there are many teachers who have discovered the core-course ability of the screen to wing out in many learning directions. The need for learning followed by the desire to learn is without doubt the most important determiner of educative goals. The responsibility of the proper utilization of the school film is not a mechanical one. Preparation for its use as a learning agent is the real crux of the matter of coordinating course content and film facts. In order to make certain that a film provides knowledge which is functional—an unswerving teaching goal—the teacher can follow these simple rules:

1. Preview the film to make certain that the promises of its title and the claims of the catalog blurb do not fall short of the objectives of the regular program of study.
2. Set aside a "block of time" for the project because, properly handled, it involves the gathering of data; requires the building of appropriate skills; demands training; rests heavily on student responsibility; and operates on the broad basis of careful organization.

Those experienced in handling education through the medium of the film are convinced that goal emphasis in film education should be on quality outcomes rather than on the quantity of material covered. Every film, no matter what its coverage, represents professional opportunity to work toward the formation of right ideals, training in techniques of cooperation, growth in initiative, and the exercise of mutual respect and courtesy in all human relationships.

To attain these skills requires considerable forethought. Recognizing the broad scope and tremendous impact of screen revelation on the adolescent, the wise teacher wants to feel equal to the task of presenting and implementing a film instead of impotent and insecure during the project. A common characteristic of the commercial film and the school film lies in the equal appeal of both to a normal human desire for change and action and, at times, escape from the living drives, however temporary. Young people, especially, feel strong yearnings to identify themselves with adventuresome experiences. At the same time they like to be in groups of their own age because they feel more secure than when with others.

Because of youth goals such as these, the

teacher can rest assured that not many noses will wrinkle over a film that educates—not if the way to and away from the film is paved with appealing grace of management.

Teachers should provide classes with a broad background scope of data as groundwork knowledge for viewing the film. This "lead-lesson" is conducted in the classroom preliminary to the actual showing of the film. It provides pupils with working knowledge which enables them to weigh the worth of a film without the danger of being swept from the moorings of sound thinking, or lost in the showing itself. As a prerequisite to the darkroom assignment, each class group must be made aware of desirable audience behavior reactions. Serious consideration of proper listening and watching techniques must be included, in justice to youthful needs. The leisure habits of the adolescent cannot be viewed at school as isolated experiences belonging more to community than to school membership. Many of our young people are involved in surprisingly dreary lives. The school has the opportunity to offer wholesome screen displays to the many adolescents in need of replenishment for their normal yearnings for optimism, humor, faith, and action. It is a mistaken notion that high school education exists solely to develop skilled intellectuality. Youthful fondness for adventure and humor demands the therapeutic treatment made possible by the screen. This is part of the preparation for adulthood to which young people are entitled as junior citizens.

AN ILLUSTRATION

BY WAY of illustration, a film showing was recently arranged for a freshman class group (Grade IX) enrolled in a course called *Occupations* (vocational guidance). The conduct of this course was such that the recitations were patterned, largely, on a socialized method basis. In anticipation of the film, *Lobstertown*,¹ the class was asked to select from its membership a committee of five to meet with the teacher to preplan this film project as an integrated part of the course study and learning procedure. The committee selected a chairman from its membership.

Meeting after school, this group of five, and the teacher, constructed a working outline designed for a lesson period to "key off" class members on the best association tangents between the film and class learning needs. The teacher

¹ From Films Incorporated, 330 West 42nd Street, New York.

had seen the film and was able to give the committee a word-picture of its content. Four major areas of consideration were covered in the outline, and each area was investigated with a series of exploratory questions so pointed as to reveal the background situation out of which the film had been built. The major areas were:

1. The geography of the New England coast
2. Occupations connected with the sea
3. Communities by the sea
4. Commercial fishing

Because geography is so vital a factor in understanding human work-effort, maps and pictures were assembled and displayed to vitalize the lesson scaled to the outline, which was written on the blackboard as an aid to the chairman and the class. The chairman presented the initial challenge to the class by conducting a discussion based on the outline, during which discussion the teacher joined the class group as a contributing member of it. The members of the committee, having done considerable research reading in anticipation of "their day of leadership," exhibited contagious enthusiasm, and the discussion was lively. The teacher, who intervened, whenever the talk tended to stray, or exaggerate, or misinform, was called upon, by prearrangement, to summarize the topic during the last five minutes of the period.

Sample Statement on Summary by Teacher: Tomorrow we will meet in the visual aids room to see a film called *Lobstertown*. The seaside community in this picture is Corea in Maine. We will be interested in many different phases of living in this small town community. You will notice the boys and girls because you will be thinking how they might feel if they were where you are, dwellers in a large city, and how you would feel if you were, like them, members of a little seaside village. You will be interested in their homes, their store, their school, their church, and their industry, because we are studying *Occupational Environment and Occupational Opportunities in the United States*, our land of many varieties of living and working. Please remember, during the film, that you are an intelligent group of boys and girls who sit quietly while watching a film and listen courteously as a mark of consideration for others in the audience. Whether it is in school or in your neighborhood theater, it is evidence of good American manners to be courteous. Harry, you will attend to the dark shades, the ventilation of the room, and the lights. There will be a student opera-

tor to show the picture. Some day you may be a member of the visual aids crew, so give the operator every possible consideration in appreciation of his service to our class group. After the film we shall discuss it the same way we talk things over here. I hope you will enjoy your trip to the little village by the sea.

NEXT day the film was shown. Pupils were active participants in the open discussion led by the teacher. Every opinion was accepted democratically. Some views were challenged. No conclusions were drawn. The teacher provoked thinking at the outset by inquiring about lobsters. Only three of the twenty-eight members had seen a live lobster (the class members were entirely of city vintage) and only one had tasted lobster meat which "mother had served from a can."

SAMPLE OBSERVATIONS BY CLASS MEMBERS

Student: The movie seemed polished up to me. It does not give the real viewpoint of life in this sea town because it does not show what happens there in winter. It only showed how these people lived in the summertime. It didn't show the hardships they had to endure when it gets cold. I think the film onesided because it showed only the good side of life.

2nd Student: I think if a person is born and raised in a seaside town he would probably find it almost as nice living there in winter as in summer. It wouldn't matter if it was cold or not. If you like living by the ocean it would be fine. If you dislike that kind of life, the best thing to do is to move out.

3rd Student: It seems to me that in the city no one cares about you. Even your family does not care too much where you are during the day. In some cases parents even send their children to special homes for children. City people won't stand in back of you if you get into trouble. They seem to like to catch you doing wrong.

4th Student: Up in Maine they do harder work than we do here. In a city, people have office jobs.

5th Student: I noticed they only have a one-room school. There is only one class but twenty children. In our grammar schools we have large buildings with many students and all grades. Life in Corea is too simple and dull for me. Everyone knows everyone else. There isn't any excitement in Corea, I would hate that.

6th Student: I think I would like to live in Corea. I wouldn't miss the movies. I haven't seen a movie in a month.

7th Student: Many girls would not like to live in that town. There isn't very much for girls to do. It is really a town for men and boys because lobster fishing claims all the interest of everyone. I wouldn't like that.

8th Student: The sea can become a friend of a person if one is born near it and understands it, otherwise it is just water.

9th Student: I don't think it is so much a question of loving that kind of life as it is the fact that where you are born you are likely to stay. You really don't have much of a choice. Environment rules you. All this talk about choosing a career looks good in the books but that's all. It's different in real life.

roth Student: The film didn't paint too rosy a picture of living but I think the work up there would not be so hard as it is here and that it might be interesting to live there provided you understand what is expected of you out fishing and as a member of the community.

SUMMARY OF POINTS DISCUSSED AS A RESULT OF THE FILM

1. Environment
2. Size of communities
3. Work opportunities
4. Work effort
5. Comparison of rural and urban living communities
6. Importance of knowing about environment and occupations
7. Disadvantages and advantages of a staple industry
8. Types of people and their work reactions
9. Living contentment
10. Choice of career

IN CONCLUSION

SUCH is the challenge of the educational film. Although extensive programs of film showings are being undertaken in the schools throughout America each year, a skillful probe into the far-reaching implementation of school films with other learning facilities in the schools is still a necessary prerequisite to achieve the fullest value of teaching endeavor by means of the screen. The first goal-post has been reached. The advisability of incorporating film showings in the total teaching program is no longer a subject of doubt. Teachers by the score have been favorably impressed with the educative appeal of the film as an instrument of instruction. There seems to be

universal acceptance, too, by youth of this method of diffusing knowledge. Given those initial advantages, the professional wisdom of the teacher can count for considerable toward training for desirable film approaches and evaluation by pupils.

Almost everywhere we turn in the adult world of today there are screen showings of one type or another. Teaching with films can become an important measuring rod for furthering intelligent audience comprehension. Proper thought attitudes and reaction values are much more difficult to acquire than facts and figures. In other words, the educative film needs to be interpreted. If reason is ever to be an outcome of learning, now is our golden opportunity to cultivate its growth by means of the school film with its wide range of subject coverage. The task is not, however, so simple as some are inclined to conclude. It involves more, far more, than merely witnessing a film. It is a significant task that must not be attempted casually. It well deserves the interplay of the many first-rate pedagogical abilities the teacher is accustomed to employ in the course of every teaching period. Let it not be said of us, or among us, that we are over-looking an opportunity to capture youthful attention and interest in recognized paths of learning. Certainly every school administrator and teacher in the United States can be depended upon as master craftsmen to implement the school film with alertness to the scope and deep importance of the task.

ENHANCING THE USEFULNESS OF FILMS

1. A film should be clearly related to problems which confront the class at the time. The more extensively the class has explored the problems the more benefits will be realized from seeing the film.
2. Purposes for seeing the film should be made as specific as possible.
3. Previewing a film will help the instructor see particular purposes which can be accomplished at any given showing.
4. Difficulties which students are likely to encounter ought to be anticipated, although not unduly emphasized prior to showing the film.
5. Impressions gained by students should be checked immediately through discussion which centers on the purpose for seeing the film. Additional methods of checking ought also to be used.
6. Second showings of a film are likely to add materially to its usefulness. It is desirable, however, to emphasize particular reasons for seeing the picture a second or third time.
7. The possibilities of using ideas presented in a film as a class continues its work ought never be overlooked. This will tend to encourage evaluation of a film in terms of the purposes for which it is seen.

(From Kenneth J. Rehage, "Motion Pictures in Use," *Audio-Visual Materials and Methods in the Social Studies*, William H. Hartley, Ed. Eighteenth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies, 1947. Pp. 160-161.)

Can We Teach Democracy?

Mark F. Emerson

PRACTICALLY all citizens in the United States are profoundly disturbed over the danger of communism in the world. It would be logical to assume that our fears arise out of our love for democracy and the desire to preserve and to strengthen it. This may be true; if so, we take a strange way of showing our devotion, for our approach to the problem is for the most part negative. We seek to destroy communism rather than to build democracy. Furthermore, some effort is required to discover any positive and active enthusiasm for democracy in this country. We do not want to lose what we have, but it is only the threat of loss which arouses us to make any effort to preserve it. It is probable that democracy is endangered by this apathy and indifference as much, if not more, than by any activities of the communists. On the other hand, if we were to show half the ardor for democracy, if we were willing to put in half the time and effort, and make half the sacrifices that communists do for their system, our democracy would be so healthy that we would need to have little if any fear of communism.

What can we do to overcome indifference and cultivate a positive and active enthusiasm for our democratic heritage? Merely teaching the facts about democracy in a classroom will not turn our students into ardent workers for democracy. It can, however, provide an understanding of the principles of democracy and their implications, while democratic attitudes and patterns of behavior can be inculcated through the methods by which the class is conducted. If we really believe in democracy, should we not devote at least one full course to it? The Russians teach communism in every class from the nursery school through the university.

The author of this description of a course on democracy is director of admissions at Friends' Central School in Philadelphia. Copies of the outlines for the individual units and for the course may be obtained by writing to Mr. Eric Johnson, Headmaster, 68th Street and City Line, Philadelphia 31, Pa.

There are, of course, many classes in the schools of the United States on "problems of democracy," but our observation is that, with a few notable exceptions, these classes and the texts they follow are more concerned with the "problems" than with "democracy." A student could go through most of them without getting much feeling for the democratic way of life.

THE COURSE

IN AN endeavor to give its students as full an appreciation as possible for that way of life, Friends' Central School in Philadelphia is offering all its seniors a full year course on democracy, its implications and applications. Much the same areas are included as in the usual course in problems of democracy, but the approach to each area is democratic. How democratic are our institutions, practices, and attitudes in politics and government, our economic system, labor relations, and race relations? Actually most of the abuses in all these fields will be found to be weaknesses in the practice of democracy.

If a student is to understand these weaknesses, he must first know what democracy is. Hence the first unit in the course is on democracy itself. It consists of a full discussion of such questions as: What is democracy? What are the basic ideas behind it? What rights and privileges does democracy offer? What obligations and responsibilities does it involve? What conditions are essential for a healthy democracy? What dangers threaten it? Reading from several texts is required to provide the basis for these discussions, but most of the class time is spent in the practice of democratic discussion. During this time much attention is given to the development of such essential democratic behavior patterns as objective weighing of evidence and open-minded consideration of conflicting points of view, so that by practice these patterns may become habitual.

After discussing democracy, its opposite, fascism, is considered. The distinguishing characteristics of fascism are investigated, the causes that produce it, the dangers involved, the extent of the danger in the United States, and the degree to which we all at times tend to be fascist in our own thinking.

The second unit applies the yardstick of democracy to our government and raises the question: How democratic are our political institutions, and how democratically do they function? The test is their degree of responsiveness to popular will. On this basis political parties, our election machinery, lobbying, bureaucracy, and concentration of authority are studied and evaluated. Considerable information that is taught in the usual courses in government must be acquired preparatory to, and in the process of, this evaluation, but it is acquired for a purpose that makes it meaningful, rather than as so many facts to be memorized for an examination.

The third unit considers democracy in connection with our economic life. A second significant test here is the extent to which opportunity is offered for the fullest development of the individual. The capitalist system offers opportunities for individuals to exercise their ability in the economic field; but, though corporations are set up to be responsive to the will of the stockholders, we have to admit that absentee ownership, holding companies, and monopolies have some very undemocratic possibilities. This provides an explanation of and some justification for the increase in government regulation of industry as a safeguard to democracy. When the tests are applied to socialism and consumer cooperatives, they reveal a considerable degree of basic democracy but communism is revealed as purely fascist in its methods. In spite of communism's claims to being democratic on the basis of government for the people, it is basically undemocratic and presents all the dangers of fascism.

The fourth and fifth units deal with the highly controversial issues of labor relations and race relations. However, if they are approached from the point of view of democracy, a calm and objective consideration is more nearly possible than if a head-on attack is employed. Past efforts to prevent organization by labor to protect its interests do not square with democratic principles. On the other hand leadership within some unions today is far from democratic. Much of our modern labor legislation is evidence of a democratic attempt on the part of the country as a whole to protect the rights of individuals and their opportunity for fuller development. Discussion of race relations may easily degenerate into arguments which produce more heat than light; but, if democracy is the basis of judgment, it is impossible to justify our treatment of minorities.

The final unit is on international relations. The most crucial problem in this area is the current world struggle between democracy and com-

munist. If we are to succeed in this struggle, we must strengthen and perfect our own democracy in all the areas covered in this course so that the world will recognize the superiority of our system. This points up the main object of the entire course and provides a culmination for it.

It should be said that the above unit contains much material that is essential to an understanding of international relations though it has no direct connection with democracy. This is true in all the units. None is limited to material having to do with democracy, though that is the core of the whole course and every unit is approached from the point of view of democracy and offers opportunities to illustrate its implications and applications. Hence the students gain a democratic sense of values and considerable insight into the meaning of the democratic way of life.

PERHAPS more important than the material covered in the course is the way in which it is handled. To develop democratic attitudes and patterns of behavior in the students, the course is conducted as far as possible in a democratic spirit and according to democratic procedures. Each student is respected as an individual and treated as such. Freedom of speech is guaranteed by the teacher. At the same time students learn not to abuse the privilege but to use it with courtesy and consideration for each other's views. Democratic discussion in which all contribute their views is fostered and there is open-minded consideration of varying points of view. The course as a whole and the individual units are teacher-pupil planned. Thus students and teacher practice democracy within the classroom.

This course offers one example of how we can try to teach democracy. It seems to us imperative that other schools should be experimenting with and developing similar courses. Communism indoctrinates its students at every stage of education. Granted that we would be defeating our own ends if we followed the undemocratic educational methods of Communist indoctrination, it nevertheless seems unthinkable that we should not give our students at least one full year's course in democracy as such. In addition democracy should be implicit in the entire curriculum at every stage of the educational process and in the whole life of the school.

We may have the atomic bomb and billions of dollars to spend, but we cannot expect to preserve this, our most valued heritage, unless we can give our citizens a clearer understanding of, a deeper appreciation of, and a more dynamic enthusiasm for democracy.

Lithuanians in American Textbooks: Ethnic and Linguistic Interpretations

Leo J. Alilunas

A SURVEY of 94 college students of the social studies during 1947-1948 revealed that only about half could accurately locate Lithuania. Not one could identify the Lithuanians ethnically—one third did not even try, more than a third identified them as Slavs, the remainder called them Germans, Scandinavians, French, and Mongolians. Only two students knew what language the Lithuanians speak.

WHO ARE THE LITHUANIANS?

IN THEIR ethnic and linguistic characterizations of the Lithuanians, standard library references¹ are agreed that the Lithuanians, together with the Latvians (also called the Letts) and the extinct Borussians (the old Prussians), form the Baltic group of the Indo-European family of races. The language of the Lithuanians, like that of the Latvians and the extinct Borussians, is nearest the primitive Aryan or Indo-European family of languages. Of the two existing Baltic languages, Lithuanian is the more archaic in structure. The Baltic languages are clearly differentiated from the Slavic (or Slavonic) group.

The research of scholars such as Thomas G. Chase, Lithuanian-American historian, and Alfred Senn, professor of comparative philology at the University of Pennsylvania and a leading authority on the Lithuanian language, has provided even more precise information.

Chase states that the Lithuanians originally were members of the Aistian race, an eastern branch of the Indo-European family. The Aistian

people at one time included four main groups: The Old Prussians, who lived along the Baltic coastal area from the Vistula to the Nieman rivers; the Yatvegians, who lived east of the Old Prussians between the Nieman and the Bug rivers; the Latvians, or Letts, who lived north and south of the Dvina river; and the Lithuanians, who occupied the area of the lower and upper Nieman river and its tributaries.²

As the result of his philological studies, Senn has been impressed by the remarkable similarity between Lithuanian, ancient Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin.³ He believes the Baltic languages date back to the Primitive Baltic which was spoken at the time of Christ. Primitive Baltic included Old Prussian, which later became modified as the West Baltic; and Lithuanian, Lettish, and Courish, which became the East Baltic languages.⁴ He concludes that Baltic and Slavic must be regarded as independent branches of the Indo-European family, although the Baltic shares certain language innovations with the Slavic and Teutonic. According to Senn, a thousand years of isolation caused the Baltic people to develop a language which had important phonetic, morphological, and lexical differences as compared to the Slavic.⁵ By virtue of their contact with adjoining people, the Lithuanians incorporated in their language words borrowed from the Finns, 1000 B.C. to 500 B.C.; from the Slavs, including White Russians, Poles, and Great Russians, from 500 A.D.; from the Germans as the result of the invasions of the

¹ *The Oxford English Dictionary* (Oxford, England: Oxford University Press, 1933), VI, P. 348; *Encyclopaedia Britannica* (Chicago: Encyclopaedia Britannica, Inc., 1940), XIV, Pp. 217, 218; and Frederick Bodmer, *The Loom of Language* (New York: W. W. Norton & Co., 1944), Pp. 410, 417.

² Thomas G. Chase, *The Story of Lithuania* (New York: Stratford House, Inc., 1946), Pp. 3-4.

³ Alfred Senn, *The Lithuanian Language* (Chicago: The Lithuanian Cultural Institute, 1942), P. 5. Also see Senn, "Standard Lithuanian in the Making," *The Slavonic and East European Review*, XXII (1944), P. 115.

⁴ *Ibid.*, Pp. 18-19.

⁵ *Ibid.*, Pp. 20-21.

Understanding rests upon accurate and adequate information. The following analysis of the American textbook treatment of Lithuanians may stimulate social studies teachers to examine more critically the treatment of other groups that today form the mosaic of America's population. The author is a professor of social studies at State Teachers College, Fredonia, New York.

Teutonic Knights, an influence beginning in 1283 A.D. and lasting in Lithuania Major until 1386 A.D.; again from the Poles, beginning in 1386 A.D., with the Lithuanian-Polish political union; from the Swedes as the result of contacts in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries; and again from the Russians after 1795 A.D., when the Lithuanians became subject to Russian political domination. Nonetheless, Senn characterizes the language of the Lithuanians in modern times as distinctively Baltic.⁶

TREATMENT IN TEXTBOOKS

WHAT the research findings show relative to the ethnic and linguistic qualities in the case of the Lithuanians is one thing. The awareness of, the use of, and the dissemination of such information by American textbook writers in the various social studies may be quite another matter.

A total of 53 social studies textbooks, the majority published during the last five years, were analyzed. These are classified as follows: On the college level—12 textbooks on the history of civilization, 10 on geography, 8 on immigration; on the secondary school level—5 on world history, 5 on geography, 4 on civics; on the elementary school level—9 textbooks on world geography.

Examination reveals that the readers of these textbooks can acquire an extensive range of information dealing with the Lithuanians. They may expect to find historical facts such as these: The invasions of Lithuania by the Teutonic Knights in the thirteenth century and by Napoleon's army in the nineteenth century; the political union of Poland and Lithuania in the fourteenth century; the political independence of Lithuania as the result of World War I; the Vilna dispute between Lithuania and Poland after World War I; Nazi Germany's seizure of Memel from Lithuania in 1939; and the conquest of Lithuania by Russia in 1940. Geographically, readers will learn about the location, topography, natural resources, climate, soil, agriculture, trade, and the like.

⁶ Ibid., Pp. 40-44.

⁷ Francis J. Brown and Joseph S. Roucek, *One America* (New York: Prentice-Hall, 1940), P. 178; Lawrence G. Brown, *Immigration* (New York: Longmans, Green, 1933), P. 149; George D. Hubbard, *The Geography of Europe* (New York: D. Appleton-Century, 1937), Pp. 474, 475; and Arthur E. R. Boak, Albert Hyma, and Preston W. Slosson, *The Growth of European Civilization* (New York: F. S. Crofts, 1946), II, P. 513.

WHAT the readers will not learn adequately or accurately, except as they might chance to read four⁷ of the 53 books, is the answer to this question which is fundamental to the study of Lithuanian culture; namely, who are the Lithuanians in race and in language?

Of the 53 textbooks, 39, or 73.6 per cent, give no information whatsoever about the ethnic or linguistic origins of the Lithuanians. One may well question what sources of information guide the authors of these textbooks in their writing. It is also surprising that only four of the eight college textbooks on immigration give the ethnic or linguistic identity of the Lithuanians.

Four textbooks that give definite information erroneously classify the Lithuanians as kindred to the Poles in race and language. Seven textbooks offer statements which, although correct in themselves, are too general or limited in meaning. All of them are negative rather than positive. Taken compositely, these textbooks indicate that the Lithuanians are neither Slavic (Poles or Russians), Teutonic, nor Caucasian-Mongolians (Finns or Estonians). One elementary school textbook, for example, declares that the Lithuanians and Latvians belong to the white race, not to the Caucasian-Mongolian family, and that their language is unlike that of any other European language.

Of the four college textbooks which satisfactorily explain who the Lithuanians are, two are in the field of immigration. One is a college textbook in geography and the fourth deals with the history of civilization.

IN SUMMARY, this investigation has disclosed that 42, or 79.2 per cent, of the 53 social studies textbooks either mention nothing at all or provide misinformation about the ethnic and linguistic characteristics of the Lithuanians. Noteworthy is the fact that standard library references on the subject are readily available. They give brief but accurate explanations, but they apparently are ignored by textbook authors. The scholarly research dealing with the Lithuanian people and language seems to have had a very negligible effect upon those who write social studies textbooks. Nearly all (92.4 per cent) of the textbooks which have been examined fail deplorably to apply scholarly standards with respect to ethnic and linguistic interpretations of the Lithuanians. If Lithuanians remain an obscure people, may not a substantial share of the blame fall upon the textbooks to which the students necessarily turn for information?

Larger Horizons for the Child: A Fourth Grade Experiment

Loretta E. Klee

EDUCATORS concerned with the curriculum below the fourth grade know that there is a continuing and ever-growing interest in the family and community. This interest is revealed in recent curriculum studies,¹ suggestions for organizing learning experiences,² and textbooks. Social studies work in the kindergarten and grades one and two, for example, is organized around the theme, "living in the home, school, and neighborhood." In grade three the emphasis is upon "living in the local environment."

In terms of the adjustment of the child to his own social situations, this emphasis is unquestionably justified. Certainly the child can be expected to deal more effectively with first-hand experiences and problems of immediate concern to himself than with those for which he would need to project himself into the unknown and do an abstract type of thinking. There are, in fact, many indications of the desirability for more attention to the needs of the individual pupil at all grade levels to develop more adequately those personal and social understandings required for desirable group interactions. This need calls for direct instruction and an abundance of learning activities built around immediate, specific problems. But does this legitimate emphasis upon the local environment compel us to neglect the development of a broader acquaintance with other peoples of the world? Must there be an "either-or" situation, or can opportunities and time be found to do both?

THE CHILD'S ENVIRONMENT

WHAT is the child's environment? His immediate, physical surroundings are easy to identify. What of his "imaginal" environment?

This experiment with fourth grade children deepens the author's suspicion that "education about people in other parts of the world" is too long delayed. Miss Klee is director of social studies in the Ithaca (New York) Public Schools.

Does a child live only in Bangor, Ithaca, or San Francisco? Is it not nearer to the truth to recognize that the whole world is as near to the child of today as the radio, movie theater, and printed or picture material that he is able to use? Even before the child is able to read, and as the child can read, words symbolize for him acquaintances and experiences far beyond the locality in which he is living. Because many of these experiences are presented in dramatic form, may they not make an impression which is more lasting than some school learning activities?

To the extent that attitudes and opinions developed in out-of-school hours are wholesome, accurate, and socially desirable, they are valuable supplements to carefully planned curricular experiences. Unfortunately, these are not always the outcomes. Because this is true, are we wise in ignoring attitudes and opinions that are being formed about people who live outside the immediate locality until children are in the fourth or, in some schools, in the sixth grade?

The following study will illustrate how difficult it can be to correct, even under very good learning conditions, preconceived notions that children have acquired from the radio, theater, and home.

TOWARD BROADER UNDERSTANDING

THE boys and girls in a fourth grade class in one of the Ithaca Public Schools had spent about four weeks in a variety of learning experiences that had been planned to give them a little insight into "Community Life in China."³ As their teacher and her supervisor discussed the activities that had been carried out—an imaginary

¹ See in particular: Willcockson and Horn, *Social Education for Young Children in the Kindergarten and Primary Grades*. (Washington: The National Council for the Social Studies, 1946).

² Bureau of Curriculum Development, Division of Elementary Education, *Elementary School Social Studies Pamphlets: I-IV* (Albany: New York State Education Department, 1945).

³ *Curriculum Guide in Social Studies—Grades Three and Four*. Board of Education, Ithaca, New York, 1947.

trip, observation and discussion of pictures and slidefilms, reading, dramatizations, art and construction work—there seemed reason to believe that the children had an understanding and appreciation of "our Chinese neighbors" adequate for their present needs. In order, however, to provide them with one more experience that might help to give them a feeling for the people of China as *persons*, Mr. Peter Sih, a student at Cornell University, whose home is in Shanghai, was invited to visit the class and talk to the boys and girls about his homeland. As a result, what had been planned as "one more experience" of the unit under consideration proved to be the impetus, not only for broader learnings on the part of the class, but, to an even greater degree, a searching analysis by the teachers of the purposes and content of the elementary courses in social studies.

On the day following Mr. Sih's visit, the boys and girls wrote him letters of appreciation. These were individual letters, not a "class letter" developed cooperatively by all members of the group. The teacher suggested that the children ask Mr. Sih questions about China. In a review of these letters before they were sent to Mr. Sih the teacher and supervisor recognized how rich in implications for curricular planning such spontaneous expressions of boys and girls can be. With Mr. Sih's permission, three letters and excerpts from several others are offered as "evidence" of the case in point.⁴

Dear Mr. Sih:

We enjoyed your visit very much. We have been making a booklet of China. We are going to copy the Chinese words you wrote on the blackboard. Before you told us you never saw the Great Wall, I thought that everybody in China saw the Great Wall. In the books we read, they always tell about different gods. Do you believe in gods or spirits or is that just a saying? I hope you will see the Great Wall and come back again and tell us what it looks like, and what it is made of. I am collecting different kinds of stamps. Could you send me some from China? I wish I could see China some day. Do children in China ever hear of Santa Claus or the Easter bunny? Good bye.

Your friend,
Kathleen

I hope you had a good time talking to us. All of us copied the Chinese words you wrote on the board. I like Chinese writing. I like Chinese singing and talking. You didn't scare us a bit.

Your friend,
Bill

⁴ These letters are exactly as written, except for corrections in spelling.

We like to have you come to our class. We didn't want you to go away. I like to have you better than recess. You don't dress like the Chinese do. Don't all the Chinese wear costumes? I like the clothes Chinese wear in plays. When you come again please bring some chopsticks. I wasn't afraid of you. There is this radio program—*Terry and the Pirates*. He is a detective in Shanghai where you live. Please come again.

Your friend,
Jimmy

A number of ideas were repeatedly expressed by the children. "We enjoyed your visit very much. We like to have visitors. . . . You didn't scare us a bit. . . . I didn't expect to like you, but I do. . . . I like you and I like China too. . . . Is *Terry and the Pirates* a true story? . . . We like your Chinese writing. . . . Will you write us a letter in Chinese? Then write us what it means. . . . I like to hear you talk Chinese. . . . Do the Chinese believe in spirits? . . . Why don't you dress like the Chinese really do? . . . I hope the Chinese get enough to eat. . . . Why do the Chinese rob people? . . ."

An analysis of the thirty-five letters suggested an interesting framework around which to build other learning experiences. For example, expressed interests of these pupils included:

Interest	Times Mentioned
Chinese music	18
Chinese writing	15
Chinese language—"Talking it"	13
Interest in Mr. Sih as a person:	
"We like you."	13
Chopsticks, bamboo combs, etc.	13
Chinese stories (folk tales)	9
Chinese "costumes"	9
Great Wall	8
Holidays	5
Religion	5
Poor people of China	4

Certain attitudes, even more pertinent to this study, were expressed or implied in the letters: Expectation of fear and dislike (before Mr. Sih's visit). . . . Surprise at not being frightened by the visitor from China. . . . Open-mindedness. . . . Appreciation for a person whom they didn't expect to like. . . . Sympathy ("We hope the Chinese get enough to eat."). . . . Hospitality. . . . Liking for another country because of the person ("We like you and we like China too."). . . . Curiosity about the people of another country. . . . A tendency for the children to emphasize differences between the people of other countries and themselves. . . . An active interest in checking what had been learned in class with a "real Chinese," especially when this conflicted with ideas gained from out-of-school sources.

PROBLEMS

THE teacher was frankly puzzled by the type and frequency of several of the questions asked by the children. Most of the queries were related to topics which had been dealt with directly in the learning activities. How, for example, could one account for: "Why don't you dress like the Chinese really do?" All of the reading materials and visual aids used in class had pointed out the "growing tendency for the Chinese, especially in the cities, to dress like Europeans and Americans." Also, the question about "gods or spirits." A stated objective of the unit of study, and one toward which the teacher had worked conscientiously, was to develop an appreciation of likenesses among the Chinese and Americans. No mention had been made of "idol worship" or superstition. In fact, she had mentioned to the children that many Chinese are Christians. Even more serious was the notion that the Chinese people were to be feared and that many of them were "robbers." Yet the teaching materials had presented the Chinese people as "hard-working, patient, brave, honest, and courteous."⁵

Had the experiences of the past four weeks, in spite of their apparent meaning, been merely abstract learning which assumed reality only when the children made the acquaintance of a "real, live Chinese person"? Or was there a more basic reason?

Clearly there were indicated in the children's letters powerful educational influences beyond those of the classroom. How else explain this situation in which nine-year-old boys and girls challenged time and time again what they had learned in school about Chinese religion, character traits, dress, and customs?

Because the children were frank, several of the preconceived notions could be traced to at least one of their sources. Two will be cited as illustrations:

Fear of the Chinese—"You didn't scare us a bit. There is this radio program called *Terry and the Pirates*. He is a detective. He lives in Shanghai where you live."

Unwillingness to accept the fact that some Chinese dress as Americans do—"When you come again, please dress in your real clothes. I like the way Chinese actors dress in plays."

WHAT THE EXPERIMENT REVEALED

WHAT conclusions can be logically drawn from this particular study (because it is readily granted that this is but one case)? It seems

reasonable to conclude that for these children, education about people in other parts of the world has been delayed too long. During school hours, throughout the kindergarten and grades one through three, their social studies experiences had been centered exclusively about the home, school, neighborhood, and local environment. In after-school time, within these same years, the boys and girls had been absorbing information and attitudes from highly dramatic and thoroughly enjoyable sources, but much of the information and some of the attitudes were neither accurate nor socially desirable. Further, this study revealed the attitudes of the children toward only one national group. Toward how many other groups were there undesirable attitudes? To what extent could the school eradicate and correct these false impressions before they became a permanent part of the personality of the child?

Follow-up activities could be planned easily to provide opportunities for the boys and girls to find answers to the specific questions raised in this one study. "String geography" and a comparison of distances from Ithaca to nearby well-known places with distances in China would illustrate to the children why "everybody in China hadn't seen the Great Wall." Looking again at photographs and slidefilms of Chinese men dressed like Mr. Sih would bring back to mind a fact that had been pointed out to the pupils even before the visit of the student from China. But the larger question remained: What are the implications for broader curriculum planning?

SOME IMPLICATIONS FOR THE CURRICULUM

IN THE secondary grades, much time is devoted to analytical discussion of "how we form our opinions." It may well be that more consideration needs to be given with children in the lower elementary grades to out-of-school learnings. Inasmuch as the imaginal environment of the child includes the far corners of the earth, all teachers should be alert to false impressions, particularly in relation to other people. Very often these impressions are revealed, not only in objective tests or recitations, but also original work in art, dramatic play, or "incidental" comment or chance conversation. A course of study or curriculum guide should be sufficiently flexible at all grade levels to permit a teacher to draw on

⁵ *Curriculum Guide in Social Studies—Grades Three and Four*. Board of Education, Ithaca, New York, 1947.

(Continued on page 80)

Why Not Try Friendship?

Ethel McDaniel

WHEN we sent the eleven packages containing about four hundred pounds of clothing and supplies on their way to Germany, we were proud of our accomplishment. But it was not until letters began coming back, letters in what the German students called their "bad school English," that we realized what we had started.

The hope in those letters impressed us with the opportunity we had of making friends with those we so lately referred to as "enemies." It is true that there are some who scorn such efforts. To them we can only say, "We tried arms and they failed. Give us a chance to try friendship."

The packages were sent to Mr. V. DeLong, Religious and Educational Director of the United States Army of Occupation at Wiesbaden, Germany. He gave the packages to two schools—a boys' school at Frankfurt, and a girls' school at Wiesbaden. Not knowing the contents, Mr. DeLong could not know that some of the boxes that went to the boys' school contained girls' clothing. Undismayed, the boys invited their sisters to school to receive the articles.

THE letters tell their own story. A nineteen year old boy wrote in part:

I must write you this letter (to) say as a person who saw it happen. . . . Believe me, it is difficult to express the gratitude of the girls in words. . . . One girl asked me what she can do to show you how grateful she is. I told her, 'just be happy. That is, I think the best thanks you can give them.'

It was about 9 o'clock in the morning when the girls were called in to receive the clothes you sent. The teacher and a representative of the student council (made) a short speech in which they thanked your students. . . .

That better international understanding can be achieved by friendly exchanges between individuals is demonstrated by this brief account by Mrs. McDaniel, teacher of American history in the St. Petersburg (Florida) High School.

'They trust you' were their last words, 'and it is on you not to disappoint them.'

Then each girl got a number and this number belonged to one of the dresses . . . and every girl got something . . . Gee, was that a joy, an excitement and laughing, you can't imagine!

When all the clothes were distributed and every girl had got something, they went down to the school garden and each showed to the other what she got. One girl thanked with some hearty words and after that, they hurried home to try the 'new look.' You know how girls are. Anyway, you see your idea was a full success. Youth helps youth—it is such a nice thought.

In later letters this same boy said:

I am glad that you understood my letter in the right way. Your attitude proves it. It's more important that people learn to understand . . . that's really more important than conferences. For nearly six years our countries have been separated from each other. What people heard about each other was mostly propaganda. We must try to forget this poison. You can see that we as youth try hard.

Dr. Theodor Fruhmman, Dean of the Boys of that same German school, wrote enthusiastically:

By this help, you and your pupils have taken some sorrows from the hearts of twenty-four mothers who often don't know how to dress their boys and girls. It is a very good idea that the old and mighty American Democracy helps the new and weak German Democracy.

From the girls' school came the same enthusiastic gratitude. Their director, Dr. Hans Koch wrote:

You can hardly realize how miserable and dull the lives of most of our students and professors (are). Lack of food, clothes and dwelling depress everybody. It must be added that the uncertain political situation is very depressing. In these circumstances, it is especially comforting to receive tokens of humanity from those who by a fatal political development were once separated from us. We appreciate not only the material value of your gift but above all the spirit which is behind it.

The student council of the Wiesbaden School sent a resolution of thanks which ended:

I think your help in our great need is the first and best way of understanding each other. It is like a bridge from one continent to the other, for those who give in a nice way and for those who take the things in gratitude. We wish God will (reward) you.

Biography in the High School

Ruth O. M. Andersen

INTEREST, understanding, and moral inspiration are three main reasons given by teachers for the use of biography in the teaching of the social studies. Certainly biography makes history more interesting. Edith Cavell in her white uniform on a cold, dark morning before a gray wall facing a German firing squad is more dramatic and hence more interesting than an account of, let us say, the American Red Cross in World War I or the history of Allied Intelligence in that same war.

THREE OBJECTIVES

THE developments of modern science and the numerous discoveries in the field of research are more interesting when seen through the patient, glowing eyes of Mme. Curie working unwearyingly with her husband in a cold, drafty, barn-like laboratory until finally they see radium, isolated, luminous, in the darkness. Biography makes history more interesting because people are by nature curious. Inquisitiveness ranges from that of the gossip to that of the intellectually curious.

A concomitant to the arousing of interest is the development of understanding, for that which is understood tends to be interesting. Teachers may have one of two aims in this matter of developing understanding. They may, if they are social studies teachers, want to help the student develop a deeper knowledge of a given period of history. For example, the story of the American Revolution becomes almost a personal experience, and hence more understandable, when seen through the eyes of Abigail Adams, and most of us would probably admit that the Federalist period in United States history is more readily understood through the lives of George Washington, Thomas Jefferson, and Alexander Hamilton.

In addition to developing understanding of

history, however, the teacher may want to help the student to understand himself. Educators are rapidly arriving at the belief that every teacher must also be a guidance counselor. The guidance counselor, believing with Dr. Bernard Iddings Bell that "it is only by understanding others that we can get our own hearts understood," will direct the student to such biographies as will help him to arrive at some needed understanding of himself.

However, interested as teachers have been in the use of biography to help develop interest and understanding, they have virtually had a passion for teaching moral truths by reference to the lives of great people. The theme has been "beware-this-can-happen-to-you" or its antithesis, "go-and-don't-like-wise."

Early writers on the teaching of history became quite lyrical on this subject. Prof. J. R. Seeley in his chapter on "The Teaching of History" says, "The admiration of great men, the elevating contemplation of noble examples, is the reward most of us expect for the trouble we bestow upon history."¹

Writers of today such as Edgar Wesley² and Henry Johnson³ are more restrained in their acceptance of biography as a method of teaching great moral truths. Wesley makes little issue of it, but Johnson's viewpoint is worth a rather long quotation:

For moral and patriotic purposes the chief stress was naturally laid upon "highly endowed" and "nobly striving" men. The general principle was that "if we walk with those who are lame, we learn to limp" and "if we associate with princes, we catch their manners." "I fill my mind," said Plutarch, "with the sublime images of the best and greatest men." To fill the minds of children with images of the same kind, and to make these images factors in the adjustment and regulation of everyday conduct, was commonly regarded as the supreme aim of biography in school. Such ideals many of the lives actually presented to children tended no doubt to promote. Even stories of fighting and killing could no doubt be so manipulated as to teach important lessons in courage, endurance, and love of home and country. From con-

This interesting paper on the uses of biography in the secondary school was originally presented at the Cleveland convention of the American Historical Association (December 1947). The author is a teacher of social studies at the Norwich Free Academy, Norwich, Conn.

¹ G. Stanley Hall, ed., *Methods of Teaching History* (New York: D. C. Heath and Co., 1889), P. 194.

² Edgar Wesley, *Teaching of Social Studies* (New York: D. C. Heath and Co., 1947).

³ Henry Johnson, *Teaching of History* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1940).

sequences of a different kind most children were, perhaps, delivered by the limitations of their own intelligence. They did not make the logical application. What they carried away very often was only a vague impression that certain characters of the past were in some obscure way either hopelessly good or hopelessly bad, rather stupid, and on the whole not sufficiently interesting to be imitated.⁴

The emulation theory does not always work. In some cases it may prove a boomerang, as in the case of the teacher who, in reprimanding a student, pointed out that, "When George Washington was your age, he was a surveyor," only to receive the barbed retort, "When George Washington was *your* age he was President." Teachers today do use biography to teach moral truths, but they do so not so much from the point of view that young people will imitate the good and abhor the evil men do, as from the point of view that desirable habits and attitudes can be inculcated through an understanding of people. This point of view applies when a teacher wants to change an attitude toward a minority group. In trying to build up the leaders in these groups, he hopes to improve existing attitudes in the field of human relations. An understanding of Paul Robeson, George Washington Carver, and Marian Anderson, for example, should, according to this theory, raise the students' opinion of the entire Negro race. Similarly a study of Haym Solomon, Albert Einstein, and Benjamin Cardozo should do the same for the Jew; and an understanding of Angelo Patri, Andrew Carnegie, and Samuel Gompers for immigrants of other groups.

WRITTEN SOURCES

SOURCES for teaching biography are numerous. We have films, filmstrips, slides (black and white and colored), the radio, transcriptions, and recordings. But the most used source is still the written word, and the most used assignment instruction is, "Read!"

Five types of biographical literature are used in our schools:

First, there is the "straight" biography, which is written with the idea of presenting as truthful a picture of the subject as possible. If the author has a flair for telling the truth interestingly, so much the better. These range from book-length biographies to the John Hancock Insurance Company pamphlets and the *Reader's Digest* articles.

Second, there is biographical fiction that attempts to bring to life an historical figure. Here the reader must be able to sift the chaff from the wheat.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 134.

Third, there is the play that attempts to dramatize an historical personage and sacrifices truth to drama, if not to glamour.

Fourth, there is poetry, which more than anything else creates an emotion—and emotion, let us remember, is not to be disdained if we are to gain a truthful impression of an individual.

Fifth, and last, there is the textbook in which the writer, if he is competent and talented enough, can cause the people in our past to appear, now singly, now in groups, as they come and go in the events that made our history. (In passing, the dearth of biographical material on women should be noted. Women don't move in our history texts. And if a woman does appear, she is apt to be a daguerreotype, not a living, breathing being.)

HOW TO USE BIOGRAPHY

AS WE approach the problem of how to use biographical reading materials, several generalizations can be made:⁵

1. Biographical reports usually come under the heading, "Outside Reading."
2. The teacher rarely assigns the same "life" to the entire class, but rather to one student or to a small group.
3. The "straight" biography and the *Dictionary of American Biography* are probably most widely used.
4. The type of assignment varies from "Read *Hamilton and Jefferson* by Claude Bowers and give a report on these two men," to a detailed questionnaire.
5. There is some, but little, correlation between classes. For example, there is little correlation between a class studying Simon Bolivar in a history unit on Latin America and the Spanish language class.

Turning from general comments to actual classroom practices, we find considerable variation in the use of biography, particularly in the matter of assignments. The following examples are typical assignments to students:

EXAMPLE ONE*

"Using the *Dictionary of American Biography* as a source, assume that you are Andrew Jackson and write your autobiography."

EXAMPLE TWO¹

- I. Subject of biography
 - A. Position or positions held
 - B. Nationality
- II. Title of volume, number of pages
- III. Author
 - A. Name

* These generalizations are based largely upon practices in secondary schools in Connecticut.

¹ This plan is used by Miss Ruth Lee, Shelton High School, Shelton, Connecticut.

² This plan is used by Miss Ruth Crockett, Bristol High School, Bristol, Connecticut.

- B. Facts about the author's life
- C. Other writings
- IV. Publisher, date of first publication
- V. Education of subject
- VI. List of the simple leading facts about career of subject
- VII. List major personal characteristics of subject
- VIII. List contributions of subject to the life of our nation
- IX. List lessons for us that you see in the life of subject
- X. Give quotations bringing out important or interesting facts.

EXAMPLE THREE⁸

- I. Source of information
 - 1. Title of the book
 - 2. Author
 - 3. Publisher
 - 4. Date of publication
 - 5. Number of pages
- II. Appearance of the subject
 - 1. Height
 - 2. Coloring
 - 3. Dress
 - 4. Voice
 - 5. Mannerisms
- III. Why is he famous in American history?
- IV. Did his contemporaries like him? Explain
 - V. Of what important events in world history did he have knowledge, either through newspapers etc., or from experience?
- VI. Would you like him for a friend, brother, uncle, father, husband? Why?

The three plans discussed above have all been used successfully, but it goes without saying that there are scores of tried and true practices that do not reach the printed page.

AUDIO-VISUAL SOURCES

WHEN we turn our attention from the written word to audio-visual aids, we have an altogether different medium with which to work.

The use of audio-visual aids in teaching biography has much to commend it. These new sources of information are a blessing to the poor readers and to readers with little imagination.

The chief advantage of the commercial motion picture is that the student needs little motivation to attend. In this phase of a pupil's life the greatest service a teacher can perform is to help the student to develop a critical attitude, a desire to sift the truth from fiction. An example of a motion picture available to schools is the *Life of Emile Zola*.⁹

⁸ This plan is the writer's favorite method of teaching biography.

⁹ Excerpt, Human Relations Series. 32 minutes, 16-mm., sound, rent \$4.00. (New York University Film Library, Washington Square, New York, 12.)

Educational motion pictures are very helpful and have two real advantages: they try to be accurate, and students enjoy them. Even a silent film, such as *Alexander Hamilton*¹⁰ in the Chronicles of America Series holds the attention of the class, as does the excellent and much newer film on Peter Zenger, *The Story That Couldn't Be Printed*.¹¹

The filmstrip is gaining popularity in our classrooms—largely because less planning is needed to show such a film, less mechanical skill is necessary to operate the projector, and less money is needed to acquire both the machine and the film. In my experience, however, I have seen few good commercial biographical filmstrips. The best I know of are those on health heroes and heroines of history distributed by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company.

Transcriptions and recordings also make possible a real learning experience. Recordings of several good radio programs, such as the *Cavalcade of America*, are available to schools.¹² Two good illustrations of this type of audio aids are "Roger Williams" and "Susan B. Anthony."

IF THE greatest possible benefit is to be derived from the use of audio-visual aids, it must be remembered that their use does not reduce the need for a teacher, who, as director of learning, must give time to a pre-view or a "pre-listen" of each film or record. The teacher must decide how best to use it, must prepare an assignment on it, and must determine whether or not the desired learnings have taken place.

Once when I was a very young teacher and quite sure of myself, I was rather taken aback by this question, "Yes, but can you teach those who don't want to learn?" Ever since, this question has been my criterion for good teaching. Biography, whether presented by means of the written word or through audio-visual avenues, is a valuable source of motivation and knowledge for "those who don't want to learn." Those who do want to learn are, of course, no problem.

¹⁰ Chronicles of America Photoplays series. 3 reel, 16-mm., silent, rent \$6.00. (Yale University Press Film Service, 386 Fourth Avenue, New York 16.)

¹¹ 11 minutes, 16-mm., sound, apply. (Teaching Film Custodians, Inc., 25 West 43rd Street, New York 18.)

¹² For recordings of the Cavalcade of America series write to Miss Gladys Franklin, Batten, Barton, Durstine, and Osborn, 383 Madison Avenue, New York 17, New York.

Criteria for Selecting Current World Events

Fay Medford Wesley

SIX Killed in Auto Crash," "State Cracks Down on Slot Machines," "UN Toils to Ease Berlin Crisis," "Wife Leaves Him Two Minutes After Marriage," "12-Nation Defense Alliance Seen," "First Snow Due Tonight," "Russ Fly Over British Airport," "Grandmother at 32," "Coops Ask Free Access to World's Oil," "Londoners View Lord Mayor's Parade," and "France Wants U.S. Loan"—so read the headlines of the daily newspapers.

From this conglomerate mass of information the reader must select, carefully evaluate, and critically appraise the news if he wants to know and understand what is taking place in the world today.

In this respect the problems of the individual reader are similar to those of the discussion leader, the teacher of current events, or the maker of tests on world affairs. This paper deals with the problems of selection, rather than the use of information after it has been selected.

CRITERIA FOR SELECTION

ONE part of the Program of Information on World Affairs consists of a weekly test on current events. The problem of selecting the news items on which the tests are based has led to the evolution of a set of criteria by which the important and significant news may be differentiated from the ephemeral and unimportant.

Suitability: In selecting news items for group study or discussion, the age, experience, and understanding of the group are factors to be considered. Such matters as international monetary rates of exchange, fiscal statements, and involved legal technicalities are unsuitable because of their difficulty. A news item containing insufficient or inadequate information may also be re-

garded as unsuitable. Some reports are written too cleverly to be understandable. Some are sketchy, with too few facts. Others are written so vaguely and deviously as to confuse the reader. The criterion of suitability requires that a news item be clearly written and that it contain sufficient and adequate information.

Scope: This refers to the extent of influence and effect. Examples of news items which clearly indicate scope are as follows: local, "Thief Steals City Bus"; state, "New State Hospital Approved"; national, "Nation's Postal System to be Overhauled"; international, "Allies Disagree Over Ruhr"; world-wide, "UN Asks East-West Conference on Berlin." Many events, however, are not so definite as to scope. A destructive flood or storm which is costly in lives and property and wipes out staple food crops, will affect the economy of the country and its trade with other countries. Thus what might appear to be a local disaster becomes international in scope. A presidential election in the United States is of world-wide concern because it determines the future foreign, as well as domestic, policies of a large and powerful nation. In evaluating the importance of an item in terms of scope, the number of people or countries affected should be taken into account.

Recency: To understand a current situation, such as the Cold War or Palestine, it is desirable to know the latest developments in that situation. The ever-changing aspects of Russo-American relations, problems in Palestine, strife in China, India, Greece, and Indonesia make it imperative that we have the most recent information concerning these areas of conflict. The rule of recency also applies to discoveries and inventions. Technological developments have already made rapid and drastic changes in our civilization. Today it is radar, television, and planes flying faster than sound. Tomorrow staggers the imagination with its possibilities in atomic development. In the field of medicine, one new miracle drug follows another. It is important, therefore, that we know about the latest inven-

The author of this paper, originally presented at the Chicago convention of the National Council, is associate director of the Program of Information on World Affairs being conducted in Minneapolis.

tions and discoveries in order to anticipate and understand the social changes which they will inevitably bring about.

Utility: All items, trivial or otherwise, have some degree of utility. Even the most insignificant has some value as entertainment or interest. But the serious application of this criterion implies that the item has discernible value for individuals, groups, or nations. Weather forecasts are useful to farmers and aviators; business reports influence merchants; the report of a drought in one area will influence farmers in another section. During election campaigns, newspapers print valuable information concerning issues and candidates. News of strikes, disasters, epidemics, revolutions, and congresses have utility for various groups and individuals. While few items have widespread or general utility, most of them should have some practical value to a reasonable number of readers.

Import: What is the meaning of a particular event, what does it signify, what is its import? Today there are innumerable interpreters—such as news analysts, editorialists, columnists, commentators, writers, and speakers—who analyze, evaluate, and appraise national and international affairs. In that they stimulate thoughtful appraisal, these interpreters make a valuable contribution. Their opinions and conclusions are often valid and helpful. They should not, however, supplant the individual's efforts to make his own interpretations and to be his own analyst. Every news report should be critically appraised and compared with reports of a like nature from other sources. The import of an event is sometimes indicated by the timing of a news release. And again, the very absence of news may be vastly significant.

Portent: One seldom reads a significant news item without speculating upon its portent for the future. Will we become involved in another war? Are we in danger of losing our civil rights? Will prices remain high? What will be done about housing? These are a few of the questions Americans are asking as they scan the news for information that will shed light on future developments. Political writers have written reams of speculation on the portent of the recent election. Foreign commentators have written extensively on the portent of our vast armament program. While this criterion applies to a relatively small number of items, it is a significantly influential factor in determining the actions of individuals and the policies of nations.

Urgency: Not all news is equally urgent. The

higher steps on this ascending scale are (1) a significant situation, (2) a critical situation, (3) a crisis. For example, the "Cold War" is a matter of great significance. Certain developments in the "Cold War" have created tenseness and anxiety. The situation in Berlin is at times critical, but at no time has it reached the state of crisis where there is no alternative. Newspaper headlines would have us believe that every event of an urgent nature is a crisis. Crises are precipitated by such events as the bombing of Pearl Harbor, a destructive hurricane, an uncontrolled epidemic, a disastrous flood, an explosion, an accident—something devastatingly final. A news item may be important on the basis of its urgency if it indicates sudden or radical change. Conditions calling for immediate action or decision also rank high in the scale of urgency.

Notability: Criterion number eight takes into account the prominence and influence of persons, groups, and countries. If the head of a government makes a statement or announces a decision it is important because of his official position. Actors, scientists, and writers make the headlines because of their achievements. The National Association of Manufacturers, the Committee of Atomic Scientists, and the National Council for the Social Studies receive attention in the press and influence people in proportion to their notability. The affairs and policies of large and powerful countries are much more significant than are those of small countries. News of the United Nations is notable because its membership includes large and influential countries.

Continuity: The ninth criterion applies to three kinds of news items: (1) those which deal with a continuing event; (2) those which reveal trends, and (3) those which constitute another step in a continuing process.

A trial, a strike, a war, an election campaign, or a session of Congress are continuing events in that they cover a series of related incidents or occurrences. The criterion of continuity reveals trends. The postwar trend toward militarism and armaments has been obvious. Another trend, however, has not been so apparent. For the past three years there have appeared from time to time small, inconspicuous news items telling how one country after another has imposed bans of secrecy and censorship. A recent development in this particular trend was the imposition of martial law in Greece, including the censorship of the mails and the right of the military to enter, search, and seize without warrant.

The criterion of continuity also guides in se-

lecting those items which indicate developments in continuing processes. Migrating to more favored environments, developing the art of government, achieving national independence, and securing religious and intellectual freedom are examples of timeless, inclusive processes. China's efforts to emerge from feudalism have constituted a long and costly process. News about strikes, labor laws, safety regulations, automobile accidents, and licensing of radio and television are a few examples of items which show the continuing process of social adjustment to modern inventions.

Reliability: A bewildering confusion of propaganda, rumor, opinion, coloration, distortion, and bias confronts the reader. In their zeal to mould public opinion, most newspapers seem to have forgotten their original function as distributors of the news. The same may be said of most radio news programs. To preserve his intellectual integrity the reader is compelled to appraise critically all news reports. He must distinguish between rumor and truth, fact and opinion, verity and propaganda. He must remember and compare past events with present reports. He must consider the particular viewpoint that a person, organization, or agency is likely to express. At a recent conference of managing editors of the Associated Press, it was decided that reports from abroad should henceforth be "interpretative." It was feared that Americans do not understand mere facts about foreign countries. Therefore, their correspondents are to be instructed to include "clarifying explanations" in their foreign reports. Such policy probably means biased reporting. If so, it will create another obstacle in the reader's search for reliability.

APPLYING THE CRITERIA

THESE ten criteria provide a scale by which to select items. In the practical application of this scale, news items should meet the two irreducible criteria of suitability and reliability. When an item proves to be suitable and reliable it may then be evaluated according to the other criteria. For example, the announcement, "Royal Son Born to Elizabeth" obviously fulfills the requirements of suitability and reliability. In addition it meets the criteria of scope, notability, and import. Its scope is the British Empire. Notability alone would justify its inclusion, for it concerns persons of the highest rank in the British world. The import or significance of this event, as in all events, will vary according to the viewpoints of individual readers. To some the import is the

birth of a future British ruler. Others may consider the unifying influence exerted throughout the Empire by a common feeling of loyalty and affection for the king and the royal family. Such persons may see in the event, with its popular emotional appeal, a further strengthening of those cultural and psychological ties which play an important role in British affairs and in Britain's foreign policies.

Another example of how these criteria may be used to select news items may be drawn from the headline, "Leave China, Yanks Told." This news item is perhaps most important for its portent, although it rates high in scope, notability, urgency, and continuity. It portends the control of China by the Communists, the downfall of Chiang Kai-shek, and changes in American foreign policy regarding China, Korea, and the whole Far East. Scope and notability are evident, since two large, influential, and populous countries are involved. The situation as described in the news is critical, and the appeal to Americans to leave China is urgent. As a phase of the Chinese civil war it is an occurrence in a continuing event. In a more inclusive sense it is a development in the continuing process of the long and bitter struggle of the Chinese people for land reform and better living conditions.

An item valuable for its recency and utility was one which appeared recently headlined, "Expert Says Phones to Use Microwaves." This item described a new development in communication by which a person may phone long distance anywhere in the country by simply dialing and beaming on narrowcast microwaves to specific receivers. In other words, direct communication over long distances will soon be possible. While this item would be selected because of its import and portent, its greatest value lies in its recency and utility.

From the above examples it is clear that most news items may be selected on the basis of more than one criteria, and that there is no sharp demarcation between the concepts of scope and notability, import and portent, urgency and recency, and other closely related criteria.

These criteria may be useful to teachers and discussion leaders in selecting items for a current events program. They may aid the individual reader in analyzing, evaluating, appraising, and interpreting the news. The application of these criteria should contribute to an expanded conception of citizenship, to greater participation in civic activities, and to a clearer understanding of world affairs.

Teaching Controversial Issues: It Can Be Done

John D. Lawrence

AN ALMOST evangelical fervor seems to characterize many of our discussions concerning the teaching of controversial issues. As is true of most crusades, the upshot is a wider cleavage between the redeemed and the apathetic. On one side the shouts grow louder with, "Teach them and forget the consequences!" On the other side, those frightened by discord begin to multiply their cautions. Some of us who had hoped to live our lives as perfectly normal teachers are tempted to sympathize with caricatures of Mr. Quixote and Mr. Milquetoast.

When Calvin Coolidge returned from church, his wife asked whether he enjoyed the service. His answer was a one-word affirmative. When she asked the minister's topic, he answered, "Sin." Somewhat annoyed by the paucity of his comments, she pressed for further details. Coolidge's summary of the preacher's remarks was, "He was against it."

Most educators would be against striking controversial issues from the curriculum. The goals of education cannot be achieved without considering live problems. Instead of defending our right to teach real social problems, perhaps we should call a truce in this verbal barrage long enough to examine the classroom techniques for handling these potential land-mines.

PRINCIPLES

WHAT, then, are the classroom methods which are effective in dealing with controversial issues? Or, conversely, which procedures make for a misinterpretation of our intentions by students or by people in the community? Perhaps answers to these questions should embody

"Perhaps," the author of this article suggests, "one of the blind alleys (in education) is the controversy over controversies." With this as a premise, he formulates several principles, which, if followed, would help to take the wrong kind of controversy out of controversial issues. Mr. Lawrence is coordinator of the secondary school curriculum in Los Angeles.

more than a bag of tricks for handling difficult problems. Perhaps they should include indications of effective or ineffective teaching in all situations.

"I'll Be the Judge." It is so easy for an otherwise effective teacher to allow most classroom activities to be pointed toward him. In such a teacher-centered situation, the instructor will sooner or later find it almost impossible to walk the tight-rope which has been set up. If participation is entirely on the basis of teacher to pupil and pupil to teacher, the teacher almost invariably becomes by implication a final arbiter in all issues. Certainly this is a role which few of us would consciously assume and one for which even fewer are qualified. When Supreme Court Justices have difficulty in deciding some of the issues which form the basis for part of our classroom discussions, it becomes apparent that many who are less informed should move cautiously.

"You Be the Jury." Perhaps too often we place emphasis on these final answers rather than on the process of attacking problems. The class does not play the role of the jury. As a matter of fact, one good measure of how much real study has been brought to bear on a problem is sometimes the degree of open-mindedness toward the issue.

Then, too, the wind must be tempered to the shorn lamb. At different maturity levels children can attack problems of varying complexity with a view to arriving at actual decisions or patterns of action. Very often students are asked to decide leftist-rightist issues, for example, before they have been given many opportunities to experience democracy in situations closer to their immediate interests.

How many of us have prided ourselves on fighting the windmills to offer an unbridled criticism of affairs at the national level and have turned thumbs down on an investigation of undemocratic practices in Baked Potato High School? How many of us would defend a teacher's right to present to our own children a point of view contrary to ours on international affairs and have given little thought to having a real democracy operating in our home?

Teaching effective living must evolve an experience curriculum. What a paradox it is to observe an autocratic classroom working on explosively controversial problems of democracy. Such an observation leaves a person with the same feeling as do the election results in a totalitarian state. Verbalized support of our way of life is not enough. Democracy does not need our defense. It needs teachers and parents who are not afraid to let it operate at school and at home.

Playing By Ear. Noise without a plan can sometimes sound like music if there are not too many participants and if the audience is extremely limited. Otherwise it is quite convenient if everyone is in the same key, knows the pattern of sounds, and knows how he is contributing to that pattern. Teacher's singing by ear grows tiresome and unplanned student participation quickly becomes unbearable. Too many English classes, social studies classes, or any of the others are playing by ear. Little does it matter whether they have discarded the "dead" classics or whether they are trying to do the modern and the popular things. Discord is just as unpleasant whether it's over Beethoven or boogie, Shakespeare or Steinbeck, the Peasants' Revolt or the Rise of the Proletariat.

The question, then, is, "How does this activity

contribute to the educational objectives which we have set up?" The answer should be so clear that it is easily obvious to the teacher, the students, the parents, and to everyone else who is interested in strengthening the democratic way of life. All problems should be selected, not for the amount of heat they generate, but for the activities which they provide in learning to live effectively in our democratic society.

Evaluation. The teacher alone is not to decide the degree of success the class obtained in reaching these objectives. Evaluation itself is part of each learning activity and should be a cooperative, continuous process. Growth in ability to work together in groups and committees, to make investigations, to utilize human resources, to make reports, and to apply the principles of group dynamics is evidence that class activities have provided some opportunities to experience democratic living.

In short, the degree of success which we have attained in teaching controversial issues is measured in the same way that we measure all effective teaching. Perhaps in this perspective we can see many roads to the same goal. Perhaps too, one of the blind alleys is the controversy over controversies.

LARGER HORIZONS FOR THE CHILD

(Continued from page 71)

any content within the child's comprehension to meet such needs as those discussed in this study.

Another implication for curriculum planning is quite obvious. Although it is undoubtedly desirable to stress *likenesses* in our discussions of peoples in other sections of the country and other parts of the world, *differences*, where they exist and are significant, should be pointed out and the reasons for them explained. Otherwise, children will be suspicious that some of the truth is being withheld and may cause them to reject what they are being taught in the classroom.

It should be emphasized, in summary, that there is no recommendation either expressed or implied in this article that the emphasis in social learnings in the kindergarten and lower elementary grades should be shifted away from the im-

mediate environment. What is recommended is that there be time and attention devoted also to those other real needs of boys and girls that are the natural concomitants of their varied sensory experiences. Attitudes and opinions toward people in other parts of the country and world that are learned in early childhood may become a fixed part of the child's personality. Because this is true, does it not seem fallacious, in terms of human relationships, to delay all instruction about "other persons and places" beyond the local community until the fifth year of school life?

It seems paradoxical that, in his responses to the children's letters, Mr. Sih remarked: "Boys and girls in Chinese cities hear about Santa Claus and the Easter Bunny. Children in the country play with other kinds of dolls."

The Techniques of Teaching Controversial Issues

Edward Rothstein

CONTROVERSY is an inherent and essential element of any dynamic culture, contributing in large measure to the pattern of growth and development of that society. New concepts create new problems. The eventual solution of these problems comes from a selective process, which determines to what extent the old is to be retained and to what degree the new is to be adopted. The rate and degree of change in society is largely influenced and directed by the forces involved on both sides of these issues we call controversial.

In a democratic society, where the element of choice enters to an unusual degree, the educational system must realize the importance of training students to deal intelligently with current problems. There is no better place than the classroom for such training.

STEPS TO FOLLOW

THE teacher has, of course, a basic responsibility for giving students systematic training in the handling of controversial issues. He must see that all aspects of the problem are considered. He must keep the discussion channeled along constructive lines. He must serve as a continuing and authoritative source of information. But it is the students themselves who must present and evaluate the arguments, and it is here that the teacher's role of guide becomes critical.

Adequate treatment of controversial questions must include a number of specific steps, among which are the following:

State, define, and clarify each point of view. This brings out the nature of the controversy and clarifies the position of each of the conflict-

ing groups. Failure to make this first step will result in much pointless discussion.

Trace the historical background of the issue. Awareness of what has happened in the past and of the reasons for the development of the controversy permits a broader perspective of the dispute.

Explain the function of any institutions or associations involved. It is important to understand the objectives and the functions of the organized groups involved in the controversy. It is important, moreover, to be aware of the agencies that will have to put the proposed solution into effect.

List the arguments given by each side. For purposes of comparison, all the arguments on both sides should be gathered together so that they are readily available to the students, who can thus secure an over-all picture of the problem. This is the raw material for critical analysis.

Examine each argument for validity. The source of a fact is important in determining its reliability. By exercising caution, we can often discover inaccurate or biased sources of information and, in some cases, even deliberate falsification. We should know who the authority is and to what degree he is entitled to be regarded as an authority. Rarely can either side completely avoid the use of faulty basic premises, inaccurate analogies, improper deductions and inductions, or half truths and evasions. Although a statement by itself may be impressive, unless it is both valid and applicable to the problem under discussion, it is meaningless.

Determine the qualitative value of each supporting idea. All reasons do not carry the same weight. The strength of an argument depends upon the nature of the advocating groups, their motives, their biases, their sincerity, and the record they have made in the fulfillment of past promises. The value of an argument can be partly measured by a knowledge of what groups or individuals will benefit from the proposed program.

*Understand the nature of the social control devices used.*¹ We are aware that, barring the use

Starting with a point of view similar in many respects to that developed by Mr. Lawrence in the preceding discussion, the author of this article outlines a program for handling controversial issues in the classroom. Mr. Rothstein is a member of the sociology department of the University of Bridgeport in Connecticut.

¹ For a discussion of the more obvious methods of social control, see L. H. Garstin, "Propaganda," *Social Education* (January, 1949), Pp. 12-14.

of force, no side can hope to get its views accepted unless it can sway public opinion. Propaganda is the method by which a group consciously tries to control the formation of opinion. Conservative groups can draw upon the pervasive force of tradition. Liberal groups, on the other hand, must rely upon a reinterpretation of values. Reactionary groups attempt to reintroduce concepts that have to some extent been discarded at a previous time. Radical groups try to establish new codes and principles.

Many methods are used. Dramatic appeals may be made to the emotions of fear, hate, greed, loyalty, compassion, or egotism as a means of gaining adherents on the one hand or promoting opposition to an idea on the other. Intellectual arguments may be resorted to in an effort to sway opinion by logic, analogy, or the use of statistical information. (Careful distinction must be made between sound reasoning and pseudo-intellectual methods, such as the improper use of analogy, statistics, and logic; oversimplification; obscuring the real issues; unsupported inferences; and unsound axioms.) The use of such abstractions as democracy, freedom, or communism without adequate definition leads to label-thinking. Symbols and symbolism are invoked when references are made to the flag, the spirit of Abraham Lincoln, the "militant workers," or the "capitalistic bosses." Ridicule has down through the years proved an effective weapon in the struggle for thought control. Appeals to security, novelty, status, and imitation are widely employed. Folkways, mores, and traditions are powerful weapons in the influencing of behavior. Coercion and force may range from the psychological pressure of implied threats to actual physical punishment, imprisonment, and the death penalty.

Unless we are aware of the forces being brought to bear upon us, we may be stampeded by one or more of the above devices into following a program which is actually detrimental to society and of benefit only to a few. As the intensity of debate and conflict increases, both sides tend to deviate farther from the realm of objective reasoning, substituting emotional reaction for reasoned judgment. When this stage is reached,

the possibility of a satisfactory solution becomes more remote. The solution of a problem then rests upon a choice between the extremes of black or white, when it originally might have been a choice from among varying shades of grey. Some of the most tragic chapters in history have been written by people who abandoned themselves to their emotions.

Discover areas of possible agreement. After a recapitulation of the arguments, an effort should be made to discover areas of possible agreement, bearing in mind that compromises are seldom exactly half way between opposing views. With areas of agreement revealed, students should be in a position to propose tentative solutions, or at least to suggest the general direction in which a solution may be found. In this process it is necessary to consider how a proposed solution will affect the contending groups in particular and society in general.

Indicate resources available for further study. Students are not, obviously, going to discover solutions to the major problems confronting society. (After all, the issues are controversial because acceptable solutions have not yet been found!) Students are not, in most cases, going to analyze the subject completely. In every group, however, there will be a few who, feeling they have only started to explore the problem, will wish to investigate it more fully. The teacher should be prepared to direct these students to books, pamphlets, articles, radio scripts, films, and other sources of information.

Methods used in dealing with controversial issues vary from classroom to classroom, depending upon the teacher's conception of his responsibility. Those who agree that the primary objective is to develop skills that will become a useful part of the student's intellectual equipment, will stress techniques rather than solutions. Where it is necessary to economize on time, they will do so by eliminating detail; they will not omit any important step in the process of analysis. To the extent that they are successful, these teachers will share the well-earned satisfaction of watching their students develop the ability to analyze controversial issues in an atmosphere of objectivity.

A number of thoughtful articles have recently appeared on the subject of controversial issues. The November 1948 issue of *High Points* (published by the Board of Education, 110 Livingston Street, Brooklyn, New York) includes two different treatments under the same title, "How Shall We Teach Controversial Issues Today?" One of the articles was written by Samuel Steinberg, the other by Woolf Colvin. The November issue of *Educational Leadership* (published by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1201 Sixteenth Street N.W., Washington 6, D.C.) was devoted to the theme, "Looking at Controversial Issues." The articles in *Educational Leadership* cover every level of public education, from elementary school through the college.

Notes and News

NCSS Annual Business Meeting

The Business Meeting held on November 26, 1948, in conjunction with the Twenty-eighth Annual Meeting of the NCSS in Chicago, was reported in the January issue of *Social Education*, except for the report of the Executive Secretary, which was held over because of space limitations.

EXECUTIVE SECRETARY'S REPORT

Merrill F. Hartshorn reported that at the end of the current fiscal year the Council was in sound financial condition with resources slightly larger than those of a year ago. However, because of continued increases in the cost of operation, particularly in printing costs, the Council will have to practice every possible economy if its financial position is not to be impaired.

The Board of Directors has authorized a budget totaling \$44,000 for the 1948-49 fiscal year (not including the budget for the editorial office of *Social Education*). The growth of the Council is reflected in the size of this budget when it is compared with the budget of \$16,000 authorized for the fiscal year 1943-44.

During the past year both membership income and publications sales reached an all-time high. This is the sixth consecutive year in which gains have been made in each of these categories. The assistance of members, and especially the officers of state and local councils, in promoting the work of the National Council is deeply appreciated. The work of these individuals constitutes a valuable asset to the National Council, and they deserve a great deal of credit for the growth of the National Council. It is hoped that ways and means for strengthening the working relationships between the local and national organizations can be developed during this coming year, as experience has proved that such a procedure is mutually beneficial.

During the past year, the National Council assisted a number of local councils by securing speakers for their meetings. This service will be continued during the coming year, and councils desiring speakers are urged to contact the Executive Secretary well in advance in order to allow time to plan itineraries. Such speakers make no charge for their services, but local groups are asked to help with travel expenses.

Approximately 1500 social studies teachers at-

tended the Twenty-Eighth Annual Meeting in Chicago. An analysis of the registration data shows that thirty-nine states and the District of Columbia were represented at the meeting. Some of the more distant states represented and the number of members from each were: California, seven; Washington, two; Colorado, seven; Texas, eight; Florida, seven; New Hampshire, one; and Massachusetts, eleven. Several foreign countries were represented by exchange teachers. These included England, Norway, Sweden, and the Philippine Islands. Four teachers from Canada were present. This was an excellent showing and represents the widest geographical attendance the National Council has had at an annual meeting.

Maine

"Enriching the Social Studies Courses Through Local and State History" was the theme of the annual meeting of the Maine Council for the Social Studies Teachers, held during the session of the Maine State Teachers Convention in Portland, October 29.

May Hall James brought greetings from the New England Association. A panel discussion was held with the following speakers and topics:

Retiring president Elizabeth Ring of Portland spoke on "Integrating Local History in the Senior Course in United States History." John Grindle described a "Local History of Pittsfield," written by his students. Bernice Sterling described some "Local History Projects." Other topics and speakers included "Learning Through Field Trips," by Robert Strout; "The Maine Travel Course," Forrest Stowell; "Student Legislatures," Grace Brown, assisted by four high school students; "A Professor Looks at the Need of Better Training for Citizenship," Edward Dow, University of Maine.

Following this panel discussion, a business meeting was held. The officers chosen for the coming year were president, Grace Brown, Rockport High; vice president, Frank Wimmer, Edward Little High, Auburn; and secretary, Rosella Lovett, South Portland.—G. B.

Central Ohio

The Central Ohio Teachers Association, Social Science Section, met in Dayton on October 29 and elected Charles H. Detling as president for the current year. The next meeting of the associa-

tion will be in Columbus on October 28, 1949.

North Carolina

The North Carolina Council for the Social Studies met in conjunction with the Harriet Elliott Social Science Forum at the Woman's College, University of North Carolina. William Carleton, University of Florida, spoke at the luncheon meeting.—H. W.

Virginia

The Social Studies Section of the Virginia Education Association met in Richmond on October 29. R. E. Swindler, of the University of Virginia, president of the group, presided at the meeting. The first part of the meeting dealt with the theme "Know Your Virginia," with the following topics and speakers: "What's Wrong with Social Studies Instruction," R. E. Swindler; "Contributions of Population and Economic Research Data to Social Studies Instruction," J. L. Lancaster, Bureau of Population and Economic Research, University of Virginia; "Cooperation between the National Council for the Social Studies and the Local Associations," Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary, NCSS; "Need for Permanent Historical Commission in Virginia, in Cooperation with the Program of the Public Schools," William M. E. Rachal, Research Assistant World War II, History Division, Virginia State Library; and "Government and Citizenship in Virginia," Col. Francis Pickens Miller, Farmington, Virginia.

The second part of the program was built around the theme "Know Your World," with topics and speakers as follows: "Report on the Workshop at Farmville," O. A. Hutton, Director of Instruction, Charlottesville City Schools; "Contribution of Geography to World Understanding on the Junior High School Level," Representative of School of Geography, University of Virginia; "Contribution of Economics to World Understanding on the Part of Teachers in the Public Schools," Dr. Duncan C. Hyde, Professor of Economics, University of Virginia; "Contribution of Courses in International Relations to World Understanding and Peace," Representative from Sweet Briar College; and "Summary of the Discussion," Fred M. Alexander, Director of Secondary Education, State Department of Education, Richmond, Virginia.

Cleveland Council

The Greater Cleveland Council for the Social Studies has a local membership of over 900 teachers. During 1948, they held six meetings:

In January, Stanley E. Dimond, Director of Social Studies, Detroit Public Schools, spoke on the subject, "Can Schools Develop Better Citizens?" In March, Edgar Dale of Ohio State University presented "Teaching the Social Studies, A Problem in Communication." In May, Sam Thompson, National Planning Association, Washington, D.C., spoke on "Planning by Americans for a Stronger Democracy." On July 5, the joint meeting of the National Council at the NEA Convention had as its theme "Changing Emphases in the Social Studies," with Wilbur F. Murra, Assistant Secretary, Educational Policies Commission, NEA, as chairman. Lewis Paul Todd, Editor of *Social Education*, spoke on "Changing Emphases at the Secondary Level"; Ralph W. Cordier, State Teachers College, Indiana, Pennsylvania, "Changing Emphases at the Elementary Level"; and John E. Braslin, Teaching Film Custodians, Inc., discussed "Audio Visual Aids." Several films were reviewed. Late in September, a panel of four school superintendents, Mark Schinnerer, Harold Maurer, Mark W. Essex, and W. L. Shumann, assisted by Mrs. Ethel Howard and Allen Y. King, spoke to a packed (standing room only) auditorium on the subject, "Your Superintendents Look at the Social Studies."

At the annual election meeting in November, a local council member, Guy Varner, Assistant Principal of Lincoln High School, spoke on the topic, "Latin American Schools—Friendship Bases in the Western Hemisphere." This talk was a report of his nine-week's tour by air (his second) of the lands south of the Rio Grande.

The Cleveland Council granted full Local and National Council membership to four exchange teachers from England in the Greater Cleveland area. The names of these four teachers are Marie Ellen Nugent of Sheffield, Fanny Woolf of London, Ellen Mary Saunders of Bedford, and Thomas Evans of Cardigan, Wales.

The Reporter, the Council's local news organ, is published twice during the school year. The average size of an issue is six mimeographed two-column sheets. The fall issue centers largely around personal enrichment experiences of the members; the spring issue around methods. There are no advertisements. The editor this year is Jean Brunner.

New officers for 1949 are: president, Russell Cunningham; vice president, Helen Reynolds; treasurer, August Brown; corresponding secretaries, Eleanor Kosman and Allen Richardson; recording secretary, Hazel Clark.

Pamphlets and Government Publications

Ralph Adams Brown

East and West

Frequent mention is made in this column of the work of the East and West Association, 62 West 45th Street, New York 19, in supplying teachers with materials on the Far East. Because of the difficulty in finding usable classroom materials in this area, teachers and school libraries would do well to subscribe to the Association's *People; East and West* (monthly, \$1.00 per year).

Each issue contains a section on "News and Notes About People, Events, and Books Around the World." Recent issues have contained such interesting notes as the "worry" of Chinese educators over the "comics" problem in their land, the efforts of Polish peoples to restore their national culture, news of UNESCO, and glimpses of schools in different countries. Most of the issues also contain information about new pamphlets of interest to social studies teachers.

Recent issues have contained the following useful articles, many of them especially good to use in elementary-school social studies classes; "You People," by Dr. G. W. Harley, long a missionary in Liberia; "An American Negro's Visit to Africa," by Claude A. Barnett; "Challenge in Africa," by John Grierson; "South Africa's Racial Trouble," by A. T. Steele; "Mass Education in China," by Dr. James Yen; "A New Tibetan Press," by Twan Yang; and "Trip of the Month," by Julia L. Sykes.

A recent publication that will be of real help to teachers who seek understanding of the East for themselves and materials for use with their students is Dr. Derk Bodde's *Chinese Ideas in the West* (Asiatic Studies in American Education, Number 3, Washington: American Council on Education, 50 cents).

Dr. Bodde notes in his foreword that "It is more important today than ever before that men of all cultures understand themselves, understand other cultures, and understand the interchange and expansion of ideas which have created a common denominator of all civilization. Unless that understanding can be gained and used as a basis for wise action, the nations of the modern world may destroy themselves and civilization as we know it."

Certainly, education, as the author notes, must

play a major role in the building of any such understanding. The chapter headings will give some indication of the scope of this 42-page pamphlet. The reader will note that the pamphlet deals entirely with the intellectual contributions of the Chinese. The chapter headings are: A Chinese Cinderella; Alchemy—Forerunner of Modern Chemistry; China and the Age of Enlightenment; Political and Economic Theories; Civil Service; Influence on Western Literature; Agriculture. There is a brief bibliography that will be useful to teachers having access to a good library.

Classes in literature and science, as well as in history and civics, will find useful a pamphlet by Arthur E. Christy, *The Asian Legacy and American Life* (New York: The John Day Co.). The pamphlet has been written especially for teachers and students in secondary schools and colleges. This writer feels sure, however, that many superior junior-high students will enjoy it and profit from using it.

Textbooks and International Understanding

I. James Quillen has written an 80-page pamphlet that should be on the desk of all teachers who are seriously concerned with the effect of textbooks and teaching on international understanding—or the lack of it: *Textbook Improvement and International Understanding* (Washington: American Council on Education, \$1.00).

The pamphlet is divided into four main sections. The first discusses "The Task and the Need." Dr. Quillen notes that more than 30 years ago James T. Shotwell wrote, "For the teaching of history depends largely upon the textbooks used in the schools; and upon that teaching rests, to a large degree, our conception as to the character of nations and national policies." The second section, "Action in Textbook Revision and Improvement," is followed by "Analysis of Textbooks" and "Summary and Appraisal of the Textbook-Improvement Movement in the United States."

The three-and-a-half page bibliography contains many items of interest to teachers who like to observe and trace trends in social studies teaching.

War and Peace

Harold Chance's *Toward Fellowship with God and Man* (Philadelphia: American Friends Service Committee, 25 cents) sets forth a way to personal and international peace through the development of a new and deeper sense of fellowship. Many thoughtful people, who are not themselves members of the Society of Friends but who are aware of the significant contributions of the Quakers to international understanding and friendship, will find this 50-page pamphlet of interest. It is *not* classroom material.

Americana

A series of illustrated leaflets issued by the National Park Service (Washington: United States Department of the Interior, free) for the information of tourists visiting the various national parks and monuments offers a wide variety of pictorial, factual, and bibliographical information to teachers of American history. The leaflets vary in length from four to 30 pages, and contain a wide variety of maps and photographs, many of which would be useful in geography. Some of the leaflets contain a chronology of the important events in connection with the park or monument; many of them also have brief lists of books or pamphlets for further reading. The factual information in the leaflets is of different degrees of usefulness, but many of them would make valuable additions to a social studies classroom library, or to the collection of an elementary school. The following titles have been arranged alphabetically.

Appomattox Court House National Historical Monument, Virginia
Bandelier National Monument, New Mexico
Big Hole Battlefield National Monument, Montana
Cabrillo National Monument, California
Carlsbad Caverns National Park, New Mexico
Chickamauga Battlefield, Chickamauga and Chattanooga National Military Park, Georgia and Tennessee
Fort McHenry National Monument and Historical Shrine, Maryland
Fort Matanzas National Monument, Florida
Fort Necessity National Battlefield Site, Pennsylvania
Gettysburg National Military Park, Pennsylvania
Glacier National Park, Montana
Grand Canyon National Park, Arizona
Grand Teton National Park and Jackson Hole National Monument, Wyoming
Hawaii National Park, Hawaii
Isle Royale National Park, Michigan
Joshua Tree National Monument, California
Kennesaw Mountain National Battlefield Park, Georgia
Kill Devil Hill National Memorial, North Carolina
Lassen Volcanic National Park, California
Lee Mansion, National Memorial, Arlington National Cemetery, Virginia
McLoughlin House National Historic Site, Oregon
Mammoth Cave National Park, Kentucky

Mesa Verde National Park, Colorado
Mount McKinley National Park, Alaska
Mount Ranier National Park, Washington
Muir Woods National Monument, California
Natchez Trace Parkway, Tennessee, Alabama, Mississippi
Perry's Victory and International Peace Monument, National Monument, Ohio
Pipestone National Monument, Minnesota
Point Park, Lookout Mountain and Chattanooga Battlefields, Georgia and Tennessee
Shenandoah National Park, Virginia
Shiloh National Military Park, Tennessee
Tumacacori National Monument, Arizona
Vanderbilt Mansion National Historic Site, Hyde Park, New York (A 16-page illustrated booklet dealing with the significance of the Vanderbilt Mansion National Historic Site in American history may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, at 10 cents per copy.)
Wupatki National Monument, Arizona
Yellowstone National Park
Yosemite National Park
Zion National Park, Utah

The U. S. and the Future

Two Public Affairs Pamphlets (Public Affairs Committee, 22 East 38th Street, New York 16; 20 cents, generous quantity discounts) deal with problems of vital concern to Americans of 1949, problems that alert social studies teachers will introduce into the classroom.

In pamphlet number 143, *New Threats to American Freedoms*, Dr. Robert E. Cushman, Goodwin Smith Professor of Government at Cornell University, warns us that for protection against the present-day threats to our liberty, we need a "thorough knowledge and appreciation of our basic civil rights." He describes the present, postwar threats to our fundamental rights as "more serious" than any faced by the American people "at almost any time during their entire history," and warns against confusing intolerance with patriotism. He finds us in "danger of losing sight of the vitally important stake that the community as a whole, and every individual member of it, has in the preservation of our freedoms," and cites a number of reasons for this situation.

Turning to the problem of our economic efficiency, Gloria Waldron and J. Frederic Dewhurst declare in *Power, Machines and Plenty*, a pamphlet based on a Twentieth Century Fund study, that machinery and investment, rather than efficiency of labor and management, are the most crucial factors in increasing our productivity. They believe that "The skill of individual workers is important but less so than the tools he has to work with. . . . New and better machinery spells out greater productivity. . . . Heavy investment is as important as inventive genius to our economic system."

Sight and Sound in Social Studies

William H. Hartley

Film of the Month

Judy Learns About Milk, 10 minutes; sale: \$45. Young America Films, Inc., 18 East 41st Street, New York 17.

This is a film worthy of note which will be especially welcome for use with a primary-grade unit on farm life or a unit on the source of food. The film provides the background information and the experiences needed for a study of community helpers and community services. Specifically, it explains for young pupils the source of our milk supply.

Judy, a six-year-old girl, goes on a trip to her uncle's farm. On the farm she sees cows grazing in the meadow and drinking from a flowing stream. Judy learns that salt is placed in the fields to stimulate the thirst of the cows. A little calf is seen being nursed by its mother.

At the barn the silo is being filled with fodder and the cows are brought in to be milked by hand. Before being milked the cows have their udders washed and are sprayed to keep flies away. Judy is permitted to try her hand at milking.

Other farm activities shown are plowing, cutting and storing hay, placing milk in the cooler room, and caring for the cows. The film ends with a sequence showing milk getting from the farm to the homes of city dwellers.

The film has good continuity, is edited in a simple, straightforward manner, and can be easily understood by primary-grade pupils. The musical background is, for the most part, pleasing although a bit distracting at one or two points. The scenes which show corn being stored in the silo will need to be clarified by the teacher. The film makes an ideal introduction for the discussion of the farmer as a helper and of milk as a healthful food.

Motion Picture News

In "Focus on Education" the editors of the *NEA Journal* analyze recent films in which education is interpreted to the public. Chosen as an outstanding example and analyzed in the December 1948 issue was *Apartment for Peggy*, in which a retired professor helps to convince an ex G.I. that teaching is a profession for those who would light up dark places.

A helpful guide to leisure-time movie fare is to be found in *National Parent-Teacher* magazine. Each month this journal reviews current films and indicates their suitability or lack of suitability for different types of audiences.

The 1948 edition of *Educational Film Guide* is now obtainable from the H. W. Wilson Co., 950 University Avenue, New York 52. "Bigger and better than ever" is a phrase which can honestly be applied to this new edition. Containing a classified list of 3,733 16-mm. films, the *Guide* not only helps one to find the proper film but also gives complete information as to the nearest source, the sale or rental price, the length of time required for showing, and the probable grade level suitability. The *Guide* is kept up to date with nine monthly issues, beginning in October 1948 and cumulated quarterly in December, March, and June. The annual subscription price, including all supplements, is \$4.00.

Net proceeds derived from the sale of the motion picture, *The House I Live In*, go to eleven charitable organizations in the United States and Canada according to an announcement by officials of Young America Films, Inc., national distributors of the film. The film, starring Frank Sinatra, makes a powerful plea for racial and religious tolerance.

The Warner Brothers new technicolor motion picture, *Fighter Squadron*, is recommended as an able demonstration of how a small number of men and planes, devoted initially to the mission of protecting the big bombers, changed the rules of fighter plane operation and created an entirely new concept of aerial warfare. The film contains exclusive combat material.

Advance publicity on the RKO technicolor film, *Joan of Arc* with Ingrid Bergman, indicates that this is a motion picture which may well be recommended to students in our high schools. The showing of this film in local theatres should give a lift to the study of world history if teachers make proper use of the opportunities and stimulation it presents.

Recent 16-mm. Sound Films

British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20.

KRO-Germany 1947. 11 minutes; rental: \$1.25. This film

explains the work of a Kreis Resident Officer—a Kreis being one of the sections into which the British zone is divided—the ruins, refugees, shortages, smugglers, and hoarders which this officer must handle.

Castle Films, 445 Park Avenue, New York 22.

Rubber Lends a Hand. 28 minutes, color, free. The story of rubber on the farm. Famous farms such as the King Ranch in Texas and the Walker-Gordon farm in New Jersey are shown.

Trees for Tomorrow. 18 minutes, free. Modern methods of harvesting, planting, and safeguarding our lumber supply.

Coronet Films, Coronet Building, Chicago 1.

Safe Living at School. 10 minutes; sale: black and white, \$45; color, \$90. A "safety tour" of a school to learn what students can do to live safely. Emphasizes courtesy, good housekeeping, skillful and correct actions.

Modern Hawaii. 10 minutes; sale: black and white, \$45; color, \$90. The camera catches Hawaii as it lives and prospers. The audience sees the island as a scenic haven, economic asset, transportation crossroads, and outpost fortress.

Life in a Fishing Village. 10 minutes; sale: black and white, \$45; color, \$90. The Swedish fishing village of Grarna is studied as an example of industry and interdependence.

Films of the Nations, Inc., 55 West 45th Street, New York 19.

In and Around Amsterdam. 10 minutes; sale: black and white, \$26; color, \$80. The historic buildings, canals, and the busy streets of a modern capital. Visits to cheese markets and quaint fishing villages.

Picturesque Denmark. 20 minutes; sale: black and white, \$44; color, \$150. A general tour of the country.

Majestic Norway. 20 minutes; sale: black and white, \$44; color, \$150. A tour of Norway, including a section on the Lapps.

Picturesque Sweden. 20 minutes; sale: black and white, \$44; color, \$150. A good treatment of the industry and people of Sweden.

Harold C. Ambrosch, P. O. Box 98, Glendale, California.

Life of the Navajo. 10 minutes, sale: \$40. Shows how the Navajos raise sheep, shear them, dye, card, and spin wool, and weave a rug. Also shows Navajo silversmiths, homes, and sand painting.

Life of the Zuni Indians. 10 minutes; sale: \$40. The Pueblo dwellers are seen at home, gardening, harvesting grain, baking bread, making pottery, working in silver and turquoise.

Ceremonial Dances. 10 minutes; sale: \$40. This film presents thirteen different ceremonial dances of the Southwestern Indians. The descriptive narrative and sound recording of chants and drums make this a very valuable film.

The Princeton Film Center, Princeton, New Jersey.

The Story of Human Energy. 10 minutes, color, free. How the sun affects plant life and what this means to human living. Sponsored by Corn Products Refining Co.

Spare That Tree. 15 minutes, free. How invention has saved one-fifth of our nation's wood pulp resources. Sponsored by Worthington Pump and Machinery Corporation.

The Magic of Coal. 20 minutes, free. Story of coal and its by-products. Sponsored by Bituminous Coal Institute.

A New Frontier. 20 minutes, color, free. The oil resources of Saudi-Arabia. Sponsored by American Oil Co. United World Films, Inc., 445 Park Avenue, New York 22, N.Y.

Latitude and Longitude. 10 minutes; rental: black and white, \$1.50; color, \$3.00. Stresses the lines resulting from the measurement of angles from the center of the earth. Clear, concise presentation.

A United States Community and Its Citizens. 20 minutes; rental: \$3.00. A good introduction to community study. Pictures the activities of the people in a small American community.

Young America Films, Inc., 18 East 41st Street, New York 17.

How We Get Our Power. 10 minutes; sale: \$45. The story of where our power comes from. Surveys the major sources of power: wind, water, fuel, explosives, and the atom.

Filmstrips

Filmstrip Distributors, 2550 University Avenue, Madison 5, Wisconsin.

Filmstrips for Social Studies, Kindergarten Through 12th Grade. A guide to filmstrips by John H. Hamburg, price \$3.25. Includes instructions for filmstrip evaluation, evaluations of 121 filmstrips, grade placement charts, alphabetical index, and a subject-matter index. A useful and usable guide.

Popular Science Publishing Company, Audio-Visual Division, 353 Fourth Avenue, New York 10.

Exploring Through Maps. Series of four filmstrips suitable for fifth, sixth, and seventh grades. Produced in consultation with the Audio-Visual Committee of the National Council for the Social Studies and the Audio-Visual Committee of the Department of Secondary Teachers of the National Education Association. Dr. Edith Parker, professor of geography at the University of Chicago, headed the committee of leading map-study experts who prepared this new series of filmstrips. Accompanying the four strips in *Exploring Through Maps* is an illustrated teaching guide in which are reproduced all the frames in the series. Guide and strips are packaged together in a sturdy, colorful, box-style file case. The entire list is priced at \$16.50.

Maps and Their Meanings. 50 frames, color. Presents basic understandings of directions in relation to everyday experiences of youngsters. Also explains use of color and symbols as aids in reading maps.

We Live on a Huge Ball. 50 frames, black and white. The difficult concept of latitude is clearly explained in this filmstrip. Latitude lines are shown in relation to the globe. Includes a great many "discussional" and "participating" frames.

Flat Maps of a Round World. 50 frames, black and white. Helps to clarify the concept of longitude and presents various types of map projections representing the globe.

Maps and Men. 45 frames, black and white. This strip depicts the various types of maps used by man in business, recreation, travel, the study of history, geography, and other pursuits. It also reviews the entire series.

Society for Visual Education, 100 East Ohio Street, Chicago.

The Story of West Coast Lumber. 45 frames, free. Por-

trays the joint contribution of lumbering and forest conservation to better American living.

Canadian Regional Geography Series. 12 filmstrips, \$33. Land, agriculture, and industrial activities of the Canadian people.

The World—Past and Present Series. 7 filmstrips, \$21. Egypt, Eskimos, Indians, Ancient Times, and the Stone Age.

Young America Films, Inc., 18 East 41st Street, New York 17.

Day and Night. 40 frames, \$3.50. An explanation of the physical phenomenon which causes our day and night. Valuable for geography classes.

What Makes Rain. 40 frames, \$3.50. A basic filmstrip for understanding the hydrological cycle.

Radio and Television Notes

CBS recently announced its abandonment of the American School of the Air for the year 1948-49. The reason for this move, as given by CBS officials, is that "School broadcasting . . . is now being effectively and expertly done by local school and university authorities, who are in a better position than any national service to judge community needs and to relate broadcasts to the individual school curriculum at times which are suitable for local listening." CBS now plans to concentrate its energies on broadcasts directed to listeners of all ages. Personally, we feel that there is a need for national network programs, broadcast during the school day and aimed at the school audience. With their vast facilities, the great broadcasting companies are able to bring to the schools programs of a type not within the ordinary range of local facilities. Educational broadcasting is still in the transitional stage and it is to be hoped that a policy will soon evolve which will strike the proper balance between the offerings of local and network authorities.

The National Education Association, the Boards of Education of New York City, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, and the National Broadcasting Company recently announced that a series of educational television programs for children, to be telecast daily, would be instituted early in 1949. Entitled "Stop, Look, and Learn," the series will cover a wide range of subjects, including geography, history, government, science, literature, and music. The programs will be telecast daily, Monday through Friday, at 5 P.M., EST.

Recordings

The Script and Transcription Exchange (Federal Radio Education Committee, Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, Washington 25, D.C.) has released several new recordings for free loan to schools for a two-week period. All re-

cordings are for slow-speed machines of 33 $\frac{1}{3}$ revolutions per minute.

World Service Series. Six 15-minute programs on the physical and spiritual needs of Europe and Asia, as observed by Quaker relief workers in war-ruined nations.

The Tenth Man. Thirteen 15-minute programs produced by the National Mental Health Association and designed to interpret to the public some of the problems concerned with the care and treatment of the mentally handicapped and to offer suggestions for promoting mental health.

No Other Road. One 30-minute program detailing the progress achieved by the United Nations, not only in the political sphere, but also in the economic and social field.

Columbia Records album MM-800, entitled "I Can Hear It Now," is obtainable at your local record store. This is the story of our time narrated by the men who made it. Beginning in 1933 with the first inauguration of Franklin D. Roosevelt, this series of recordings embraces the changes of the thirties, World War II, the surrender of Japan, and the commencement of the Atomic Age. Great figures of the period whose voices are heard include Franklin D. Roosevelt, La Guardia, Landon, Al Smith, Mussolini, Churchill, Willkie, De Gaulle, Stalin, Truman, and MacArthur. The album retails for \$7.25.

Helpful Articles

Casteret, Norbert, "Lascaux Cave, Cradle of World Art," *National Geographic Magazine*, xciv:771-794, December 1948. Illustrated with 11 natural color pictures of early cave drawings.

Frazier, A., and Raymond, John C., "Understanding the Literature of Still Pictures," *See and Hear*, iv:26-27, December 1948. How students may be assisted in getting the most out of the pictures they see everyday.

Gable, Martha A., "Television Is at Your Service Now," *School Management*, xviii:4, 9, December 1948. An account of Philadelphia's experiments with several types of telecasts.

Jenkins, J. W., "Let's Make a Diorama," *See and Hear*, iv:36-37, November 1948. An excellent article which tells exactly how to go about diorama making. Complete with detailed drawings.

Madden, Samuel A., "Simplified Visual Aids in Adult Education," *Adult Education*, xii:173-177, August 1948. A very useful summary of the types of materials which may be utilized in teaching.

Peterson, Lilly, "Indian Days Live Again," *American Childhood*, xxxiv:14-15, January 1949. An account of a primary-grade project which utilized a variety of materials.

Roos, Carl A., "A Cooperative Film Library," *NEA Journal*, xxxvii:625, December 1948. A brief account of how a group of schools worked out a solution to the problem of how to obtain suitable classroom films.

Book Reviews

THE WHITE MAN'S PEACE. By No-Yong Park. Boston: Meador Publishing Co., 1948. Pp. 252. \$3.00.

Born in Manchuria, educated in the Orient and in the United States (at Minnesota as an undergraduate and at Harvard for his doctorate), experienced as a lecturer and college teacher, No-Yong Park writes this book as an advocate of international organization. Basically, he contends that peace can be achieved only through some form of world authority as a substitute for international chaos.

International anarchy he sees as the sole cause, not the result, of war. He concludes that wars must and will end either through world union or world conquest. The world cannot wait for education and democracy to become universal; it must have organization with strength to preserve peace, or face inevitable military dominion. From such a perspective, even the intransigence of communism becomes a secondary issue. To Dr. Park the United Nations is a good and substantial beginning from which a stronger organization, perhaps federal in character, can be built.

Valuable supporting materials are to be found throughout the book, but the wealth of incidents and references, ancient and modern, is essentially undocumented. The Oriental point of view—well worth acquaintance—is especially prominent in the final section, dealing with peace in Asia. To one who wishes to read widely about efforts for peace, this book is useful. It is not a text in any sense, and it can be used as supplemental reading only with discrimination.

FRANKLIN L. BURDETTE

University of Maryland

●
SURVEY OF EUROPEAN CIVILIZATION. By Wallace K. Ferguson and Geoffrey Bruun. Carl Becker and William L. Langer, Eds. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1948. 2nd edition. Pp. xxv, 970, xcv. \$6.50.

The late Carl Becker, in his introduction to the first edition of this text, states that "... Professors Ferguson and Bruun have attempted to write a book that has merit as a book, and not merely as a textbook," which is a good criticism and an ideal way to serve the historian. A review of the text is naturally presumptuous, for many

teachers either use this book for their classes or have thoroughly perused its contents.

Ferguson and Bruun are well known, both for their ability to write and for their tendency toward newer interpretation. Their survey is noted for the inclusion of materials on social, cultural, and economic history, and in those fields they are at their best. In their discussion of political history, they offer a summary which, because of omissions, frequently causes the inquisitive student—and there are some—to ask perplexing questions. They have written of Western civilization from primitive to atomic man. Throughout, trends are traced with care and offer the student the basic facts for judgment. The organization is not startling, for one finds chapters with standard titles: "The Emergence of Russia," "The Rise of Prussia," "The Catholic or Counter-Reformation," "Thirty Years' War," "France Seeks Security," and "The Post-War World." The information within the chapters is basically sound and should interest both instructor and student. The Duc de Sully is retrieved from darkness; the French Revolution and the Napoleonic eras are brilliantly discussed; and the ancient world is made intelligible to students inquiring why they should study "dull ages past."

Possible errata would include such things as the number of sacraments or rites retained by the Lutheran church from the sacramental system; neither the influence of the New World on Spain nor the rise of the English cabinet system are discussed; and the map facing page 565 has the dates of 1795 and 1815 on Finland, neither related to Russia's acquisition of that territory. However, in truth, stress should be placed on the relative lack of error in the text and teachers may depend upon its accuracy.

Profuse illustrations, maps, and charts offer guidance; a double-column-page format helps the reader because it reduces eyestrain, while at the same time increasing the number of words per page. In all it is, in this respect, a great improvement over the previous edition. The reading lists are adequate, although one might complain that they are at the conclusion of the book rather than at the end of each chapter where, knowing student lethargy, the instructor might prefer them to be. For the teacher, marginal notes, frequent generalizations, and summaries furnish over-views which are invaluable.

The text should be used solely for college classes, whose purposes it serves well, and not for high school instruction. Provocative, it has stirred students to thinking. It has provided the content necessary for judgment. Its style and ease of reading are an antidote for the student's common misapprehension that all history is uninteresting. The authors and editors should be complimented for the way in which they have fulfilled the needs of history teachers.

RAYMOND E. LINDGREN

Vanderbilt University
Nashville, Tenn.

THE UNITED STATES ARMY IN WORLD WAR II.

THE ARMY GROUND FORCES. THE PROCUREMENT AND TRAINING OF GROUND COMBAT TROOPS. By Robert R. Palmer, Bell I. Wiley, and William R. Keast. Washington: Historical Division, Department of the Army, 1948. Pp. xiii, 696. \$4.50.

The second volume of the Army Ground Forces' history has the characteristics of the first, which was reviewed last April (XII, 183). This one consists of detailed studies of the procurement, assignment, and training of personnel in the ground forces. The procurement studies are primarily the work of Professor Palmer of Princeton; the replacement, school, and officer training of Assistant Professor Keast of Chicago; and the unit training of Professor Wiley of Louisiana State University. These scholars were with the Historical Section of the Army Ground Forces during a portion of the war. The chief interest of these volumes to social studies teachers grows out of their realistic presentation of the policies followed, and their frank evaluations of the degree of success or failure of each one.

The major procurement problem was the quality of the personnel assigned and withdrawn from the ground forces. The lack of enough superior non-commissioned officers which resulted was a continuing handicap. Undoubtedly many sound reasons were behind the decisions of higher commands which gave the ground forces such large percentages of low ability personnel, but the seriousness of the condition which followed leads one to doubt that they were important enough to justify the policy completely.

The studies of unit training—including preparation for overseas shipment—are especially rich in apt quotations from the responsible officers regarding their problems and the frequent

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Simplicity is the keynote of the presentation throughout this entire book. The author has not gained simplicity by diluting the subject matter or escaping from otherwise difficult topics. Simplicity has been gained by completeness and vivid presentation. It is simple, direct, and nontechnical but challenging to students of the secondary level. The table of contents is as follows:

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12. Value and Prices
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15. Money
16. The Money We Use
17. Credit and Commercial Banks
18. Savings and Investment Institutions
19. Payments Between Countries
20. Changes in Prices and Money Value

Unit VI. Distributing Income

21. Sharing What We Produce
22. Rent for Land
23. Wages for Labor
24. Interest for Capital
25. Profits for Risk Taking

Unit VII. Economic Welfare

26. Differences in Income and Wealth
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shortcomings of their program. In the study of redeployment training, Professor Wiley quotes an unnamed officer as follows (p. 647): "The capitulation of Hirohito on 14 August saved our necks. With things being as they were it would have been absolutely impossible to have sent well-trained teams to the Pacific for participation in the scheduled invasion of Japan." This realism is characteristic of the volume.

All in all, the volume is an excellent study in statesmanship, that clearly meets the purposes Thucydides had in writing his classic history. It differs from Thucydides in that its basis of evaluation is chiefly the Army Ground Forces rather than the United States Government. This grows out of its objective: to be a history of the Army Ground Forces. But for most readers the larger perspective would be more useful, and this perspective should appear in the volumes to come on the War Department.

To the former ground forces soldier this limitation will give the volume greater interest. Here are the answers to many of the questions soldiers had, and still have, regarding policies to which they were subject, often for no clearly apparent reasons. And the answers here are clear and explicit as far as the Army Ground Forces are concerned.

Like Volume I, this book is too specialized for high-school student reading. College students who are veterans will find it interesting and valuable. Above all, it will be supremely useful to statesmen, military leaders, and indeed all citizens concerned with policies of national security, should another occasion arise that requires us to create large armies.

ELMER ELLIS

University of Missouri

LABOR AND SOCIAL ORGANIZATION. By David Aloysius McCabe and Richard Allen Lester. Boston: Heath and Co., 1948. Pp. viii, 373. \$2.75.

This textbook is suggested for an introductory course in economics or a course in labor problems, and doubtless a live teacher and some experienced, alert students could inject some excitement and interest into its pictureless and closely packed pages. As it stands, it is factual but dull, competent but not inspired.

Its estimate of organized labor at 14,000,000 is out of date. To this reviewer, the authors underestimate the damage of the Taft-Hartley Act, but why argue about something on the way out? The reference to the Marxian labor theory of ex-

change value should have used the term "social necessary labor" because obviously the extra labor time put in by an individual worker or shop does not mean that their product gets a higher price (monetary expression of exchange value). The treatment of the French Syndicalists and the British Guilds should have mentioned our own native IWW. And why are the consumer and producer cooperatives overlooked in the survey of alternatives to capitalism? The description of the functions of unions has too little about their increasingly important role as welfare agencies and nothing about the educational and cultural activities which they maintain.

The book consecutively describes (1) the growth, structure, policies and methods of labor unions; (2) the legal status of the unions and their relations to government; (3) the provisions for social security—accident and unemployment compensation, old age and sickness insurance; and (4) proposals to reorganize society and replace capitalism. The writers naturally prefer the methods of the British Fabians in the Labour Party to the Soviet Stalinists whose ideas and methods are given close attention, as recommended recently by President Conant of Harvard.

MARK STARR

1710 Broadway
New York

BASIC ISSUES OF AMERICAN DEMOCRACY. A BOOK OF READINGS. Hillman M. Bishop and Samuel Hendel, Eds. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1948. Pp. xiv, 323. \$2.40.

This book is designed to vitalize the study of American government by giving greater emphasis to basic issues and the underlying values of democracy and less emphasis to the descriptive and factual aspects of government. To achieve this aim, Professors Bishop and Hendel have employed some novel principles of selection and arrangement of material, with the result that this volume is a most noteworthy addition to the Century Political Science Series.

The readings are arranged under topical headings which range over a very wide field, from such philosophical problems as "Is a science of politics possible?" and "What is democracy?" to the more concrete and practical issues of American government, such as "Is federalism obsolete?" and "Can congressional government do the job?" About 60 pages are devoted to problems of American foreign policy dealing largely with such currently debated issues as our role in

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world affairs, American-Soviet relations, and world government.

Throughout, the selections are chosen and grouped in such a way that controversial issues are illuminated by two or more divergent points of view. Certainly, there are few teaching devices better calculated to stimulate student thinking and discussion than to place side by side under, let us say, the question of limits on free speech in a democracy, the diametrically opposed views of Archibald MacLeish and Max Eastman. To give another example, under the problem of police powers, relevant portions are reprinted from the Supreme Court decisions in *Lochner v. New York* and *West Coast Hotel Company v. Parrish*.

The job of selecting from the ablest writing has been done with great skill and the authors have written clear and brief introductory notes to put each selection in its proper setting. Hence this book of readings is, for the most part, a series of written debates or round table discussions in which the participants are sometimes the Supreme Court, sometimes classic writers like John Stuart Mill, James Madison, and James Bryce, and sometimes more contemporary expounders of doctrine like Harold J. Laski, Arthur Koestler, Carl Becker, V. I. Lenin, and James Burnham.

To the resourceful teacher, this volume can be of inestimable value on several levels. Published for use in college to be used alongside a standard government textbook, it can provide rich and varied discussion material as a secondary-school text or as a reference book. The more capable high-school students, just as their college brethren, will profit from the training in selecting from amongst conflicting and ably presented points of view those that are most cogent and best supported by evidence.

SAMUEL H. HALPERIN

Bronx High School of Science
New York City

EUROPE IN OUR TIME: 1914 TO THE PRESENT. By Robert Ergang. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1948. Pp. xv, 710. \$5.50.

Unusual for a text of this type is the extent to which the author permits himself to moralize and to express his views. Such expression undoubtedly makes the book more interesting. Selection of material also helps sustain interest; although the picturesque has sometimes been permitted to take precedence over the important, the author's

obvious wide reading on the period enables him to select salient points for discussion. This reviewer would have preferred less stress on the purely military phases of World Wars I and II, but the new factors in warfare are well treated, and the proportion among the various sections of the book is good. There are, nevertheless, a few rather serious omissions, and some topics receive shorter shrift than is their due. Sometimes unnecessary background material of the pre-1914 era is included.

Not only is the general organization commendable, but the balance between general and detailed facts is on the whole excellent. The style is lucid, and the vocabulary such that the high school teacher need not fear assigning the book to her pupils. He or she might well warn them, however, that the reasons associated with stated facts are not always accurate. Sometimes, too, material not in itself faulty is so worded as to leave an erroneous impression. The section on World War II and the postwar years, which carries the story of November 1947, is a good object lesson in the difficulty of writing the history of recent years. Much of it sounds as though it comes directly from the newspapers of the time.

Indeed, the numerous magazine quotations contemporary with the event discussed are especially valuable for the teacher. He should also find innumerable minor items helpful in enlivening his teaching. Nor are other praiseworthy features hard to find. The treatment of Spain during World War I and its civil war, and of the common phases of the history of the small nations after 1918, is particularly good. The comparison between peacemaking after 1918 and after 1945, and the characterization of the leaders at the Paris Peace Conference after World War I, are splendid. The author puts on many events a valid, interesting interpretation which the reader would probably not arrive at by himself. At least some attention is paid to cultural developments; but it is rather difficult to understand why such discussion should be limited to the minor states and to the effect on culture of the Nazi and Soviet dictatorships. There are good tables, including those on the goals and achievements of Russia's first Five-Year Plan and on naval power in 1939. The book contains twenty-four full-page illustrations. The topics of the thirty black-and-white maps are well chosen, and the map captions, highlighting what the maps are designed to show, are excellent.

On the technical side, the quality of the paper and the binding is good, and the print is very

clear. Unfortunately, the index is somewhat incomplete. But the bibliography is excellent: annotated, up to date, it includes magazines and cites bibliographies, bibliographical articles, and documents.

ROBERT B. HOLTMAN

Louisiana State University

THE AGE OF THE GREAT DEPRESSION, 1929-1941.

By Dixon Wecter. New York: Macmillan, 1948.

Pp. xii, 362. \$5.00.

While many leading New Dealers are publishing colorful and patently biased accounts of their part in the events of the nineteen-thirties, historians in increasing numbers are producing detailed studies of particular aspects of American life in the same period. Broadus Mitchell's *Depression Decade* is an excellent analysis of the course of the Great Depression and the New Deal's efforts to end it. Basil Rauch in *The History of the New Deal* has examined the changing character of the first two Roosevelt administrations from the standpoint of the political analyst, and Charles A. Beard in his numerous works on the New Deal's foreign policy reiterated his belief in American "continentalism." Dixon Wecter in *The Age of the Great Depression* has approached the events of these years from still another viewpoint, for he has sought to recount the history of the American people rather than that of their government from 1929 to 1941.

Ranging over a wide area of human activity, Mr. Wecter writes with verve and skill about virtually every phase of American life except politics. Insofar as he permits his own ideas to invade the countless facts which he has accumulated, he makes it clear that he is in general sympathy with the New Deal's objectives despite minor objections over details. Critics of the New Deal who felt that it went too far or did not go far enough will be as disappointed with Mr. Wecter's attitude toward his subject as they were with the New Deal itself. At times the student of these years could ask for a more detailed examination of the economic forces which helped to shape the course of American history after 1929, but most readers will be happy to settle for what Mr. Wecter has given them—a lively picture of how the American people lived during the world's greatest economic cataclysm. No other book so accurately catches the spirit of the times and no other book provides such a quantity of illuminating illustrative material on the effects of the

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New Deal and the depression on the lives and thoughts of the American people.

The Age of the Great Depression is descriptive rather than analytical history. While the author has definite views on a number of specific subjects, he does not integrate his ideas into any overall thesis. Each of his chapters stands as an independent essay and bears little relationship to any larger pattern. The result is a curiously static book which builds up to no general conclusions. Like the other authors in the American Life Series, of which this volume is a part, Mr. Wecter is more adept at describing events than at pointing out their significance. He records with many fascinating details what happened to various segments of the population from the stock market crash to Pearl Harbor, but he does not furnish a framework on which to hang these facts.

The Age of the Great Depression should be invaluable to teachers of recent American history. In it they will find an abundance of material suitable for use in the classroom. Their students will undoubtedly welcome it as a book which is not only informative but entertaining throughout.

HAROLD C. SYRETT

Columbia University

DO YOUR OWN THINKING. By C. H. Scherf. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1948. Pp. xi, 368. \$2.40.

PSYCHOLOGY FOR LIVING. By Herbert Sorenson and Marguerite Malm. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1948. Pp. x, 637. \$3.00.

Do Your Own Thinking has been designed primarily for high school courses in mental health and hygiene, personality development, adjustment, and orientation. This book might well serve as a text in social problems courses which are built upon the philosophy that course planning and class operation should proceed from and with the student's individual and group problems. Certainly it should be examined and considered by teachers of such courses. Many chapters, such as those on propaganda, truth, leisure, vocations, and ethical behavior, will be useful for collateral reading in all social problems courses.

The facts are accurate, the point of view positive and constructive, and the presentation stimulating. Many of the "try these on yourself" questions at the end of each chapter are provocative, and the text contains abundant questions that can lead the student to examine, or re-examine, his own attitudes and beliefs. The book is adequately and pointedly illustrated and, in

addition, an eight-page list of visual materials describes motion pictures and filmstrips that may be used to supplement the text.

Throughout the book the student is led to see the relationship of straight thinking to study, vocabulary, personality, creativeness, ethical conduct, and other subjects. Among the areas discussed are: how we learn, the effect of emotions on thinking, the development of fears, leisure, alcohol and thinking, thinking about right and wrong, and an intelligent understanding of humor.

The approach to sex education and drinking are down to earth and man to man. "The fortunate child gets early and reasonable sex education," says the text. It continues, "If you yourself have not had it, resolve that your children will receive it." Included in a very comprehensive coverage of "How Alcohol Affects Thinking" is a delightful illustration built on the principle that most people want to "experience everything once." A young man says to his father, "I'm going to get drunk tonight, just to experience the sensation." His father suggests that, on his way downtown, he might climb a pole and put his hand on the power line just to experience the sensation of 12,000 volts of electricity passing through his body. Many such illustrations give the zest to reading which can command the attention of secondary school students while driving home irrefutable points regarding human behavior.

In the hands of a skilled, resourceful teacher, this work can give real meaning to an area often either neglected or superficially glazed over.

In *Psychology for Living* "whatever will be most helpful to the teen-age group has been selected from the field of psychology and applied to the problems of high school students." The text is intended for use in courses in psychology but many sections are suitable for reference or supplementary reading for social studies, marriage and the family, and human relations. Mr. Sorenson and Miss Malm have done an admirable job in presenting psychology so that it is understandable and meaningful for teen-agers.

After presenting the basic ideas of psychology, the authors turn to boy-girl relationships, marriage, and careers. For example, under the heading "Your Success with the Opposite Sex," a girl-to-girl conversation gives down-to-earth answers to many problems stressing both boy and girl responsibilities and biological and psychological reactions. The chapter on choosing a vocation includes a question outline for use in making a

personal survey; a method of critically analyzing job experiences; and specifics on finding a position, applying, writing the letter of application, etc. The consideration of marriage ends with a series of typical situations faced by the teen-age group. The student is asked to serve as "marriage counselor" in handling these problems.

The book has been written in line with principles of sound textbook writing. The chapters begin with provocative questions, are well charted and graphed, have superior illustrations, and a list of visual aids. The friendly tone in which the book is written and the hundreds of pointed case studies should inspire introspection.

ROBERT BAYLESS NORRIS

Cortland (N.Y.) State Teachers College

●
OCCUPATIONAL PAMPHLETS: AN ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY. By Gertrude Forrester. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1948. Pp. 354. \$2.50.

It has long been recognized that pamphlets dealing briefly with a single occupation are more popular with students and can be more economically kept up to date than books dealing with many different types of work. Miss Forrester has annotated some 3,000 occupational pamphlets, including individual job descriptions, job families, and interviewing aids. This material comes from more than 350 sources. It is listed by occupation as well as in a series under the publisher's name.

Besides the usual occupations, the pamphlets cover information on choosing a career, on apprenticeships, on charts and posters, jobs for the handicapped, and methods of obtaining work. A chapter is devoted to an explanation of how to index and file the various materials. Through the careful collection and annotation of these many pamphlets, Miss Forrester has provided social studies teachers with the basic materials necessary for teaching an occupations course or unit. Librarians, also, will find the information contained in this book invaluable for building up a vocational file.

MARIAN RAYBURN BROWN

Cornell University

Publications Received

- Bathurst, Effie G. *Your Life in the Country*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1948. Pp. viii, 399. \$2.80.
Huff, Warren, and Huff, Edna Lenore Webb, Eds. *Famous Americans*, Second series. Los Angeles: Webb & Co., 1941. Pp. 641. Trade \$7.50; libraries and schools \$6.00.
Richardson, Edgar P. *Washington Allston*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1948. Pp. ix, 234, plates 59. \$10.